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No. 1806.

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The History of Mary, Queen of Scots. By J. A. Mignet. Bentley.

THE 'History of Mary, Queen of Scots,' has supplied an unfailing subject of interest to the poet, the historian, and the novelist. Her sex, her beauty, the troublous times in which she lived, her strange vicissitudes of fortune, and her tragic fate, combine to rivet the attention and excite the imagination of the least impressible of readers. But these very circumstances have tended to warp the judgment of most writers who have related her melancholy story. In addition to which, national prejudices and religious animosities have exerted their usual influence in extenuating her crimes and exaggerating her faults. As a Queen of Scotland, murdered by a Queen of England, and as a Catholic sacrificed to the interests of Protestantism, she has found a host of admirers, who have written her history, not with the view of ascertaining and recording the real facts of the case, but in order to apologize for her conduct, and to elevate her into a martyr. On the other hand, the same influences have raised against her a number of enemies, who have used every effort to blacken her memory, to omit all the circumstances which form some palliation for her crimes, and to depict her as a monster of cruelty and of lust, like the Messalinas and Agrippinas of the Roman empire. Even Mr. Patrick Fraser Tytler, the most learned, and the most trustworthy of the historians of Scotland, is not free from these influences, and writes rather as the advocate than as the historian of Mary.

It is, however, not difficult for a person, who will dismiss from his mind party prejudices and feelings, to form a correct estimate of the character of Mary, and to ascertain the truth of the leading events of her life. There are, in fact, few periods in history, of which we possess a greater number of authentic documents, and which have been more diligently investigated by modern inquirers. Almost every successive writer of Mary's history has thrown new light upon the subject from contemporary sources; and Prince Labanoff's vast collection of the correspondence of Mary herself, has supplied a mass of evidence relating to the history of the Queen and her times, which settles many of the points that had given rise to the fiercest disputes. It is therefore high time that we should possess an impartial history of this queen. This is at length afforded us by M. Mignet's present work. He possesses most of the excellencies and few of the defects of the modern school of French historians. He writes with the same clearness and animation which distinguish the historical productions of his countrymen; but, unlike many of them, he does not substitute his own fancies for facts, but diligently examines the documents relating to the period of which he treats, supports all his statements by authorities at the foot of the page, and thus enables the reader to test his accuracy and to judge of the truth of his assertions. The present work is also marked by strict impartiality. M. Mignet does not appear either as the accuser or as the apologist of Mary, but simply as her historian. He has made diligent use of the works of his predecessors, of the collection of Prince Labanoff, and also of Spanish documents hitherto unpublished, consisting of the

confidential letters of Philip II., the Duke of Alva, and the Spanish ambassadors in England, at Rome, and in France, from 1558 to 1588. The results at which he has arrived demand the attention, and will generally, we cannot doubt, convince the judgment of the historical student.

The work commences with the minority of Mary, and terminates with the expedition of the Invincible Armada, sent by Philip II. to avenge the death of that queen, and to deprive the Protestant Elizabeth of the throne of England. The present volume comes down to the defeat of Mary after her escape from Lochleven Castle, and to her flight into England. We pass over the period of Mary's early life, of her residence in France, of her marriage with the Dauphin, of her return to Scotland, and of her subsequent marriage with Darnley, as these events have not given rise to much dispute among historians. But we will endeavour, by a little abridgement, to give a connected view of M. Mignet's account of the dark scenes which followed. The first act in the tragedy was the murder of David Riccio, the Queen's private secretary and confidential adviser:—

"On the 3rd of March commenced the week of the great general fast of the Reformed Church, which had brought all the most zealous Protestants to Edinburgh. Knox and Craig, who were both privy to the conspiracy, chose subjects for sermons calculated to inflame the public mind, and prepare it for what was about to happen. The Bible abounded in startling examples of punishment. The death of Oreb and Zeeb, the defeat of the Benjamites, the history of Esther, and the execution of Haman, all impressed upon these alarmed and violent men the duty of inflicting swift and summary vengeance on the enemies of the people of God. At this time the enemy of the people of God was the poor Italian secretary, who was detested as a foreigner, envied as a favourite, and feared as a Catholic; and whom the nobles engaged in the conspiracy had resolved to sacrifice in the presence of the Queen herself.

"On the Saturday evening, as it had been agreed, Morton, Ruthven, and Lindsay proceeded, with about two hundred armed men, to Darnley's apartments in Holyrood Palace, which were situated below those of Mary Stuart. He had supped earlier than usual, and was quite ready to receive them. At eight o'clock he went up to the Queen's chamber by a secret staircase, followed at a short distance by Ruthven, George Douglas, Andrew Ker of Faudonside, and Patrick Bellenden; whilst Morton and Lindsay, with their men, occupied the court-yard, and seized the gates of the palace. Darnley was the first to enter the Queen's cabinet, a little room of about twelve feet square, where he found Mary Stuart at supper with her natural sister, the Countess of Argyle, and attended by David Riccio, who had 'his cappe upon his heade,' the Commendator of Holyrood, the Laird of Creich, Arthur Erskine, and some others of her household. He took his seat behind the Queen, who turned towards him, and embraced him affectionately.

"A minute had scarcely elapsed before Ruthven, clad in complete armour, and pale and haggard with disease, broke into the room. He was followed almost immediately by George Douglas, Faudonside, and Patrick Bellenden, armed with daggers and pistols. This invasion of her private apartments, at such an hour and with such weapons, left Mary Stuart no doubt of the sinister design of the King and the conspirators. She demanded of Ruthven what was his business, and by whose permission he had ventured to enter her presence. Ruthven replied, pointing to Riccio, 'Let it please your Majesty that yonder man David come forth of your privy-chamber, where he hath been over long.' 'What offence hath he done?' said the Queen. Ruthven answered, 'That he made a greater and more heinous offence to her Majesty's honour, the King her husband, the nobility and

commonwealth.' The Queen then said that if any one had any charge to bring against David, she would cite him before the Lords of Parliament, and she ordered Ruthven to retire under pain of treason. Ruthven, however, paying no attention to her commands, approached Riccio to seize him. But he took refuge behind the Queen, crying out in his broken language, 'Madame, je suis mort! Giustizia, giustizia! Sauve ma vie, Madame, sauve ma vie!' In his attempts to avoid the danger which threatened him, the table was thrown down upon the Queen, who was six months gone with child, and who strove to defend him from the assassins, whose short swords and pistols were for a moment turned against herself. Riccio had seized the pleats of her gown, and clung tightly to them. Darnley, however, loosed his hands; and whilst the rest were carrying off their victim, he held the Queen in his arms, that she might make no farther efforts to save him.

"Alarmed at the danger of her unfortunate servant, and not altogether without fear for herself, Mary implored the pity of the conspirators for Riccio, who, while he was being dragged away, reminded Darnley of the good services which he had rendered him. Darnley hypocritically assured the Queen that they would do him no harm. The poor and trembling Italian was dragged from her cabinet, and through her bedroom to the entrance of her presence chamber, which was close at hand. He found there most of the conspirators, waiting for their victim. Morton and Lindsay wished to keep him until the next day, and then to hang him; but George Douglas, more impatient than they, struck him, while on the staircase, with the King's dagger, which he had got hold of, and called out that that was the royal blow. The others immediately rushed upon him, nor did they think their work complete until the body was mangled with fifty-six wounds. His corpse was thrown out of window into the court-yard, and carried thence to the porter's lodge."

The Queen, who had previously quarrelled with Darnley, now regarded him with feelings of unmitigated disgust; and the fatal passion, which she soon afterwards formed for the Earl of Bothwell, rendered her more than ever anxious to get rid of her husband. A plot was now formed against Darnley's life, to which there can no longer be any doubt Mary was a consenting party:—

"On the day after she had expressed herself with such suspicious severity of Darnley, she set out for Glasgow, to lavish marks of the strongest affection upon him whom she judged so unfavourably, and detested so thoroughly. Darnley, who was still an invalid, was greatly surprised at this unexpected visit. He knew that Mary Stuart had recently spoken of him in very harsh terms, and he had received some vague warnings of the Craigmillar conspiracy. He did not conceal his apprehensions from the Queen, but told her that he had learned from the Laird of Minto, that she had refused to sign a paper which had been presented to her, authorising his seizure, and if he resisted, his assassination. He added that he would never think that she, who was his own proper flesh, would do him any hurt; and then, with more vanity than confidence, he declared that if any others should intend to injure him, he would sell his life dear, unless they took him sleeping. Mary in her turn reminded him of his intention to retire to the Continent, and of the project attributed to him by Hiegate and Walcar. He affirmed that he had never been serious in his threats of departure, and denied the second charge with vehemence. After having reproached him with his fears and suspicions, and evinced more gentleness and less aversion towards him than usual, Mary had no difficulty in regaining all her former influence over him. At heart, Darnley had always been strongly attached to her; and his unrequited affection, and wounded pride, had been the causes of his withdrawal from the Court. He professed sincere repentance for his errors, ascribed his faults to his

youth and inexperience, and promised to act more prudently in future. He also expressed his extreme delight at seeing her once more by his side, and begged her never to leave him again. Mary then proposed to convey him in a litter to Craigmillar, as soon as he was strong enough to travel; and he declared his readiness to accompany her, if she would consent that they should again live together as husband and wife. She promised that it should be as he had spoken, and gave him her hand; but added, that he must be thoroughly cleansed of his sickness first. She also requested that he would keep their reconciliation secret, lest it should give umbrage to some of the lords.

"This change of tone and conduct on Mary's part was very extraordinary. Had she passed, suddenly and sincerely, from feelings of aversion towards her husband, to tender solicitude for him—had her disgust changed into fondness? It is impossible to believe this when we consider that Darnley's murder, which was perpetrated a few days afterwards, caused her no grief, inspired her with no regret, called forth in her no desire for vengeance, and induced her to take no means for bringing the assassins to justice;—when we know that at the very moment when she appeared to have become reconciled to him, her criminal intimacy with Bothwell still continued, and that she became shortly afterwards the wife of her husband's murderer. But then, how are we to explain this reconciliation? Must we believe that, blinded by passion, and obedient to the ferocious and ambitious will of her lover, Mary Stuart went to Glasgow to gain Darnley's confidence by manifesting an hypocritical interest in his condition, that she might bring him to Edinburgh, and place him in the hands of his enemies? Such perfidy appears incredible, and yet both moral probability and written evidence rise up against Mary Stuart with crushing force."

From Glasgow, Mary wrote in the following terms to Bothwell:—

"I have never seen him better, or speak so humbly, and if I had not known from experience that his heart is as soft as wax and mine as hard as diamond, I should almost have taken pity on him. However, fear nothing." She was nevertheless disgusted at the perfidy which her passion induced her to practise, and which she called her *hateful deliberation*. "You constrain me so to dissimulate," she added, "that I am horrified, seeing that you do not merely force me to play the part of a traitress; I pray you remember that, if desire to please you did not force me, I would rather die than commit these things; for my heart bleeds to do them. In brief, he will not come with me, unless upon this condition, that I shall promise to use in common with him a single table and the same bed as before, and that I shall not leave him so often, and that if I will do this, he will do all I wish, and will follow me." Carried away by the violence of her love, she told Bothwell that she would obey him in all things; and begged him not to conceive a bad opinion of her; "because," she continued, "you yourself are the occasion of it; I would never act against him, to gratify my own private revenge." She did not conceal the object she had in view—an object which was attained two months after the murder of Darnley, by Bothwell's divorce from Lady Jane Gordon, and marriage to herself. In order to gain this end, she did not fear to expose her honour, to burden her conscience, to endanger her person, to forget her dignity, and to sacrifice, against her own inclination, the man who obstructed the gratification of her wishes. No wonder that she cried with remorse, "God forgive me!"

It was now arranged among the conspirators that the murderous deed was to be perpetrated in a house in the Kirk of Field, a large open space adjoining the gates of Edinburgh, and that Mary was to be the decoy to lure the victim to his fate:—

"Darnley was soon well enough to travel in a litter. The Queen, whom he overwhelmed with caresses, but who was always attacked by a pain in her side whenever she entered his room, an-

nounced their speedy departure to Bothwell. 'According to the commission which I have received,' she wrote, 'I shall bring the man with me on Monday.' The original plan of conducting the King to Craigmillar had been abandoned, because he had evinced great repugnance for the place. But he had consented to remain at Kirk of Field until his health should be completely restored. Meanwhile, notwithstanding Mary's affectionate behaviour and his great fondness for her, Darnley's alarm was not entirely dispelled. 'I have fears enough,' he said to Thomas Crawford, 'but may God judge between us. I have her promise only to trust to, but I have put myself in her hands, and I shall go with her, though she should murder me.' With these feelings he left Glasgow, and travelled to Kirk of Field by easy stages. Bothwell came to meet Mary and Darnley at a short distance from the capital; and on the 31st of January, the young King, still an invalid, and rendered melancholy by his fears, entered the fatal house, in which he was, ere long, to meet his death. This house had formerly belonged to the prebendaries of the Kirk of Field, and was not at all adapted for the reception of a King and Queen. Small, confined, and ill-furnished, it consisted only of two stories, one of which contained a cellar and another room, and the other, a gallery which extended above the cellar, and a bed-chamber, which corresponded with the room on the ground-floor. Nelson, Darnley's servant, when he arrived at Kirk of Field, was about to prepare the Duke of Chatelherault's house for the reception of his master. But the Queen prevented him, and directed him to Balfour's house, whither the necessary furniture was conveyed, and which Bothwell had evidently chosen that he might carry out his murderous intentions with greater facility. Darnley was established on the first floor, where his three servants, Taylor, Nelson, and Edward Simons occupied the gallery, which served at once as a wardrobe and cabinet. The cellar on the ground-floor was transformed into a kitchen, and the Queen had a bed prepared for herself in the room immediately below that in which the King slept. She also directed that the door at the foot of the staircase, which communicated between the ground-floor and the upper rooms, should be removed. Thus installed, though very uncomfortably, by Darnley's side, she passed several nights under the same roof with him. Her assiduity, her attention, and the manifold proofs which she gave him of her affection, were all well calculated to dispel his fears.

"Whilst Mary Stuart seemed to have returned to her former affection for Darnley, Bothwell was occupied in making all due preparations for the murder. In addition to those accomplices of high rank, whose co-operation he had secured at Craigmillar, and on subsequent occasions, in order that he might carry out his design with impunity, he had procured a number of subaltern assistants to put it into execution. His chamberlain Dalgleish, his tailor Wilson, his porter Powrie, Laird James of Ormiston and his brother Robert, and two men-at-arms, Hay of Tallo and Hepburn of Bolton, whose courage and devotedness he had amply tested during his border warfare, were admitted into his confidence, and unhesitatingly became his instruments. He had false keys made, by means of which easy access could be gained into Balfour's house; and he sent to Dunbar for a barrel of gunpowder, which was to be placed underneath the King's apartment, and to destroy the house and its inmates by its explosion. The assistance of the Frenchman Paris, whom he had placed in Mary Stuart's service, was indispensable to him for the purpose of ascertaining whether the false keys were exactly similar to those in use, and of placing the powder in the room occupied by the Queen below Darnley's bed-chamber. But when he revealed his plan to Paris on Wednesday, the 5th of February, the poor man displayed great hesitation to serve him, fearing that he would thus ensure his own destruction. In the narrative which he gave to his judges, two years after the murder, when he was captured and hanged for his com-

plicity, he relates in terms of striking simplicity, the conversation which he had with Bothwell, on being made acquainted with the terrible secret. 'On hearing him,' he says, 'my heart grew faint; I did not say a word, but cast down my eyes.' Bothwell, who was not pleased at his silence and consternation, looked at him with impatience, and asked him what he thought of the plan. 'Sir,' he replied, 'I think that what you tell me is a great thing.' 'What is your opinion of it?' reiterated Bothwell. 'Pardon me, sir, if I tell you my opinion according to my poor mind.' 'What! are you going to preach to me?' 'No, sir, you shall hear presently.' 'Well! say on.' Paris then reminded him of the trouble and misfortunes of his past life, and sought to dissuade him from this murder, which would destroy his present tranquillity, and endanger the extraordinary favour which he had attained. He concluded by telling him: 'Now, sir, if you undertake this thing, it will be the greatest trouble you ever had, above all others you have endured, for every one will cry out upon you, and you will be destroyed.' 'Well,' said Bothwell, 'have you done?' 'You will pardon me, sir,' answered Paris, 'if you please, if I have spoken to you according to my poor mind.' 'Fool that you are!' said Bothwell, 'do you think that I am doing this all alone by myself?' 'Sir,' said Paris, 'I do not know how you are going to do it, but I know well that it will be the greatest trouble that you ever had.' 'And how so?' said Bothwell; 'I have already with me Lethington, who is esteemed one of the most prudent men in this country, and who is the undertaker of all this; and I have also the Earl of Argyle, my brother Huntly, Morton, Ruthven, and Lindsay. These three last will never fail me, for I have begged for their pardon, and I have the signatures of all those I have mentioned to you. We were desirous to do it the last time we were at Craigmillar; but you are a fool and poor of mind, unworthy to hear anything of consequence.'

"Paris finally consented to do what Bothwell required. He was entirely in his power, and very probably was not so long in giving his promise as he would have us believe. He enabled Bothwell to compare the keys of the house with the false ones he had made, and promised to introduce Hay of Tallo, Hepburn, and Ormiston, into the Queen's chamber, on the evening appointed for the execution of the murder, that they might deposit the powder there, whilst the Queen was with Darnley. Bothwell had forbidden Paris to place the Queen's bed immediately under that of the King, because he intended to have the powder strewed there. Paris did not attend to this, and when Mary Stuart came into the room in the evening, she herself ordered him to change the position of the bed.

"The night of Sunday, the 9th of February, was fixed for the execution of this horrible design. Mary Stuart's conduct, when the time for the murder drew near, is but too well calculated to confirm the accusations which result from the depositions of the witnesses, the confessions of the perpetrators, and her own letters. Nelson says that she caused a bed of new velvet to be removed from the King's apartment, and substituted an old one in its place. Paris declares that she also removed from her own chamber a rich coverlet of fur, which she was, doubtless, desirous not to leave there on the evening of the explosion. On the Sunday, she came to spend the evening with the King, whom she had assured that she would remain in Balfour's house during the night. Whilst she was talking familiarly with him in the room upstairs, the preparations for his death were actively going on below. On the previous evening, Hepburn had brought the barrel containing the powder into the nether hall of the lodging occupied by Bothwell in Holyrood Abbey. Before evening, on Sunday, Bothwell had assembled all his accomplices in that same room, had concerted his plan with them, and had allotted to each the part he was to perform in the nocturnal tragedy. At about ten o'clock in the evening, the sacks of powder were

carried across the gardens by Wilson, Powrie, and Dalgleish, as far as the foot of Blackfriars Wynd, where they were received by Hay of Tallo, Hepburn, and Ormiston, and conveyed into Balfour's house by the assistance of Paris. As soon as the powder had been strewed in heaps over the floor of the room, just beneath the King's bed, Ormiston went away, but Hepburn and Hay of Tallo remained with their false keys in the Queen's bed-chamber. When all was ready, Paris went up into the King's room, and the Queen then recollected that she had promised to be present at a masquerade, given in Holyrood Palace, in honour of the marriage of her servant Bastian with Margaret Carwood, one of her favourite women. She therefore took farewell of the King, left the house with her suite, including Bothwell, and proceeded by torchlight to Holyrood. Darnley beheld her departure with grief and secret fear. The unhappy Prince, as though foreboding the mortal danger by which he was threatened, sought consolation in the Bible, and read the 55th Psalm, which contained many passages adapted to his peculiar circumstances. After his devotion, he went to bed and fell asleep, Taylor, his young page, lying beside him in the same apartment."

It is unnecessary to relate the well-known tale of the murder. Mary's conduct after its perpetration is a conclusive proof of her guilt.

"What was the effect produced upon Mary Stuart by this terrible occurrence, which filled Edinburgh with indignation and mistrust? She appeared overwhelmed with sorrow, and fell into a state of silent dejection. She manifested none of that activity, anger, resolution, and courage which she had displayed after Riccio's murder: but shut herself up in her room, and would communicate with her most faithful servants by the medium of Bothwell alone. Darnley's murderer was the only person admitted to her presence. Even were we not furnished with the most unquestionable proofs of her complicity by the confessions contained in her letters, the authenticity of which we have established elsewhere, as well as by the declarations made in presence of their judges and upon the scaffold, by the subaltern actors in this tragic drama, her conduct both before and after the murder would suffice to convince us that she was a party to the crime. Her journey to Glasgow, at a time when she was loudest in her expressions of distrust and hatred of Darnley; the marks of tenderness and hopes for reconciliation which she had displayed towards him, in order to induce him to come with her to Edinburgh; the selection of Balfour's house, which was convenient only for the commission of a crime, and wherein she consented to reside that he might not refuse to remain in it; the care with which, on the evening before the murder, she removed from it all the furniture of any value which it contained; the conveyance of the powder and introduction of the two principal assassins into her own room, where neither the powder could have been strewn nor the murderers concealed without her connivance, as she might otherwise have come down stairs and discovered all; and finally, her departure from Balfour's house, where she had promised to pass the night, a few hours before Darnley was killed and the house blown into the air—prove only too conclusively that she was acquainted with the whole plot.

"But if her conduct previous to the commission of the crime thus deeply criminales Mary Stuart, what must we think of her proceedings after its perpetration? Her behaviour, both as a wife and a queen, render her guilt all the more flagrant, because, far from avenging the husband upon whom she had so recently lavished her hypocritical caresses, she rewarded his murderer, and eventually married him. It will now be our task to unveil the sad picture of her errors and her punishment. Horror-struck as she appeared to be, Mary Stuart left the task of communicating this catastrophe to the French Court to her Privy Council, which was almost entirely composed of accomplices in the murder, and the secretary and guide of which was Lethington, one of its principal instigators. The despatch of the Council, addressed to Catherine de

Medici, was entrusted to Clarnault, who was at the same time the bearer of a letter from the Queen to the Archbishop of Glasgow. In this letter, which she wrote two days after the murder to her ambassador in France, Mary Stuart deplores 'that mischievous deed' which had struck terror throughout all Scotland, and says, 'the matter is horrible and so strange, as we believe the like was never heard of in any country.' She further declares that a lucky chance alone saved her from being a victim to the conspiracy, which was directed against herself as well as the King. 'By whom it has been done,' she adds, 'it appears not as yet; but the same being discovered by the diligence our Council has begun already to use, we hope to punish the same with such rigour as shall serve for example of this cruelty to all ages to come.' After having thus endeavoured to conciliate the favourable opinion of the Court of France, she at length decided, on Wednesday, the 12th of February, to offer, by proclamation, two thousand pounds reward to any who would come forward with information regarding the perpetrators of the crime. Scarcely was this made known, when public opinion gave utterance to its convictions, and a paper was fixed during the night on the door of the Tolbooth, or common prison, in which Bothwell, James Balfour, and David Chambers (another of Bothwell's intimates) were denounced as guilty of the King's slaughter. Voices, too, were heard in the streets of Edinburgh at dead of night, arraigning the same persons. A second placard charged the Queen's servants with the crime, and mentioned the names of Signor Francis, Bastian, John de Bourdeaux, and Joseph, David Riccio's brother. The Queen took no steps to secure the subaltern conspirators, and kept the greatest criminal of them all by her side."

Only a few weeks elapsed before Mary married her husband's murderer:—

"However incredible it may appear, this marriage had been decided upon by a contract signed by Mary Stuart herself on the 5th of April, seven days before Bothwell's acquittal. It was prepared with mysterious precipitation. Bothwell could not openly claim, or the Queen voluntarily consent to, its fulfilment so soon after the death of Darnley, who had been murdered by the one only two months and a half before, and for whom the other would long have to wear mourning apparel. What was to be done? They determined that he should carry her off by force—a proceeding which would place Mary, in some measure, under the constraint of necessity, and would explain the resignation of the Queen, by the violence done to the woman. Here, again, she was unhappily Bothwell's accomplice, as we have abundant evidence to demonstrate. She agreed with him that he should meet her, with a force more numerous than her own retinue, as she was returning from a visit to the young Prince her son, at Stirling Castle, and that he should, with a show of violence, make himself master of her person and will. Bothwell at once departed to complete his preparations. During his absence, Mary wrote to him several letters which betray her anxiety, her jealousy, her unchangeable resolution, and the impatience which she felt at the objections of Bothwell's own confidants. Huntly had been let into the secret, and endeavoured to dissuade the Queen from carrying out the plan. She immediately conceived great suspicion of him, and wrote to Bothwell: 'He preached unto me that it was a foolish enterprise, and that with mine honour I could never marry you, seeing that being married you did carry me away, and that his folks would not suffer it, and that the lords would unsay themselves, and would deny that they had said. I told him that, seeing I was come so far, if you did not withdraw yourself of yourself, that no persuasion, nor death itself, should make me fail of my promise.'

Our space prevents us from following M. Mignet in his account of the fatal consequences of this marriage, which deprived Mary of her crown, and consigned her to captivity. We have no desire to extenuate or to palliate Mary's guilt; but it is only fair to recollect, that she had been brought up in

one of the most vicious courts of Europe, of which our author gives the following description:—

"Nothing could equal the splendour and vivacity which Francis I. had introduced into his court by attracting thither all the principal nobility of France, by educating as pages therein young gentlemen from all the provinces, by adorning it with nearly two hundred ladies belonging to the greatest families in the kingdom, and by establishing it sometimes in the splendid palaces of Fontainebleau and Saint Germain, which he had either built or beautified on the banks of the Seine, and sometimes in the spacious castles of Blois and Amboise, which his predecessors had inhabited, on the banks of the Loire. A careful imitator of his father's example, Henry II. kept up the same magnificence at his court, which was presided over with as much grace as activity by the subtle Italian, Catherine de Medici; whose character had been formed by Francis I., who had admitted her into the *petite bande de ses dames favorites*, with whom he used to hunt the stag, and frequently sport with alone in his pleasure-houses! The men were constantly in the company of the women; the Queen and her ladies were present at all the games and amusements of Henry II. and his gentlemen, and accompanied them in the chase. The King, on his part, together with the noblemen of his retinue, used to pass several hours every morning and evening in the apartments of Catherine de Medici. 'There,' says Brantôme, 'there were a host of human goddesses, some more beautiful than the others; every lord and gentleman conversed with her whom he loved the best; whilst the King talked to the Queen, his sister, the Dauphiness (Mary Stuart), and the princesses, together with those lords and princes who were seated nearest to him.' As the Kings themselves had avowed mistresses, they were desirous that their subjects should follow their example. 'And if they did not do so,' says Brantôme, 'they considered them coxcombs and fools.' Francis I. had taken as his mistresses, alternately, the Countess de Chateaubriand and the Duchess d'Etampes; and Henry II. was the chivalrous and devoted servant of the Grand Seneschal of Normandy, Diana of Poitiers. But besides their well-known amours, they had other intrigues; and Francis I., in his unblushing licentiousness, prided himself on training the ladies who arrived at his court."

We shall return to the work as soon as the second volume is published.

Handbook to the Antiquities in the British Museum; being a Description of the Remains of Greek, Assyrian, Egyptian, and Etruscan Art preserved there. By W. S. W. Vaux, M.A., F.S.A., Assistant in the Department of Antiquities, British Museum. Murray. THE vast additions made during the last ten years to our collection of the remains of bygone ages have not failed to engross their due share of the floating attention of the public, and the peculiar features of Lycian and Assyrian art are already as familiar to the eyes of the multitude as those relics of a period less remote—the time-honoured piles of our cathedrals, or the grey circles of Stonehenge. This familiarity, by creating a demand for the best interpretation that can be afforded of their difficult symbolism, has led to the production of the work before us. Every one acquainted with Mr. Vaux's previous work, 'Nineveh and Persepolis,' will be satisfied that whatever learning, patience, and judgment in selection can afford to the execution of a task like the present, has not been wanting; and the comparative absence of all private criticism on the matters reviewed, serves to convey a firm confidence in the soundness of opinions which are based on the authority of the first writers on art in recent times. The

appearance of the work as one of Mr. Murray's handbooks will not render it less welcome to the public, who will be found, ere long, traversing their own island with companion volumes to those which guide them through Europe and the East—Murray duce et auspice Murray. The present volume will be of inestimable service to all visitors to that department of the Museum of which it treats, but more particularly to our own countrymen; for while our daily intercourse with the continent reminds us that one of the uses of a national museum is to share the duties of recording and re-animating the fading relics of the past, what we are yet more bound to is the spread of knowledge and the encouragement of a distinctive national taste amongst ourselves. We have not with us the inexhaustible stores of Italy, in her Etrurian tombs, the sites of the Hellenic colonies, and later specimens of transplanted Greek art; in the 60,000 remains said to be preserved in Rome, and the exhumed cities at the foot of Vesuvius. Nor are our rooms as numerous and splendid as those at Berlin or Dresden, in the Louvre or the Glyptothek; yet there are points of pre-eminence in the department of antiquities in which the British Museum yields to none, particularly as a school of study, from the high perfection of its best specimens—the Elgin marbles, and for the succession of objects it presents during 250 years of the best and most important era of Greece. The period thus illustrated may be divided into three epochs; that preceding Pheidias—his immediate age—and that which followed. Of the first we have only representation by casts of originals. First in point of date are the four slabs from the temples of Selinus, in Sicily, in the Phigaleian room (B.C. 580), remarkable for the short and compact drawing of the figures, and the endeavour to represent the greatest possible breadth of limbs on the given surface; next, the casts from Ægina, also in the Phigaleian saloon, the originals, as restored by Thorwaldsen, being preserved at Munich. (We would here observe that Mr. Vaux's description differs from that on the monuments in the Museum as to the aspect of the two pediments of the temple.) The supposed date of these (480 B.C.) corresponds with the marked advance discernible in art; a wonderful knowledge of nature, not without hardness and stiffness, characterizes these figures, with certain peculiarities in the drawing of the body. Next in date, immediately before Pheidias (B.C. 469), are the casts from the temple of Theseus, brought over by Lord Elgin, and preserved with the marbles in the large room, scarcely to be distinguished in style from the great works which we know to have been wrought under the direction of Pheidias himself by his pupils and workmen. Of this splendid collection, which consists of thirteen figures and fragments from the pediments, sixteen slabs from the metopes, and 249 feet of marble from the cella of the Parthenon, the highest admiration has always been expressed by all who, from any faculties whatever, have been attracted to the study of ancient art. The opinion of the sculptors Nollekens, Flaxman, Westmacott, Rossi, and Chantrey, and of Sir T. Lawrence, are recorded to the effect that these marbles are in some points of view superior, at all events equal, in value as studies, to the works of the greatest celebrity—the *Farnese Hercules*, and the *Apollo* of the Belvidere. Their admiration was accompanied with the strongest conviction of the

value of these remains to the rising school of sculpture in England. How this prediction has been fulfilled, we may well, with much anxiety, inquire. The friezes from the temple of Niké Apteros, rather later than the Parthenon marbles, but of the same school, and displaying the same energy and animation of execution, are also in the Elgin room. With the Parthenon marbles are connected the Phigaleian reliefs, which are portions of the frieze of the temple of Apollo Epicurius, at Phigaleia, in Arcadia, built by Ictinus, the pupil of Pheidias, but executed in a style inferior to that of the master, with less pure and dignified forms, and greater love of passion and exaggeration (B.C. 431). The casts from the mausoleum at Halicarnassus, in the Phigaleian room, are of still later date (B.C. 353), and exhibit to some degree the decline of Greek art, in the strained postures and unnatural slenderness of the figures. Of the same class, representing the later Greek school, is the monument of Lysicrates (B.C. 335), which is also amongst the marbles brought by Lord Elgin.

Throughout this period, separate Greek statues, known to be such, are not numerous in the Museum. Copies, however, of the *Discobolus* of Myron, and other works, represent, somewhat feebly it must be owned, the long period that succeeded. The beautiful statues and busts that adorn the large room have principally come down to us through Roman hands. It may not be uninteresting briefly to trace the progress of this collection as it now exists. It had its origin with the British Museum itself in the private collection of Sir John Hans Sloane, who possessed a few terra-cottas and sepulchral urns. At his death all his curiosities became the property of the public. Some funeral inscriptions were presented by T. Hollis, Esq., in 1757; but the first important assemblage of antiquities was Sir W. Hamilton's collection of vases and urns purchased in 1772. The Museum continued to be enriched by donations, chiefly of sepulchral monuments and urns, and of some inscriptions given by the Dilettanti Society, till the great importation of the Towneley Museum was made in 1835. These marbles had been bought chiefly in Rome, through Jenkins, a dealer, and Cavaceppi, a sculptor, and were brought here in 1772. After Mr. Towneley's death, they were sold to the nation for 20,000*l.* The *Venus* or *Dione*, the *Discobolus*, and most of the more important statues, were in this collection. In 1814, a second purchase of gems, coins, and drawings was made of the Towneley family for 8200*l.* The figure of *Cupid bending the Bow* was purchased at the Hon. Edmund Burke's sale in 1812; and in the following year the Phigaleian sculptures, discovered by Mr. Cockerell and other gentlemen in 1812, were transferred to the Museum.

Meanwhile a more important acquisition than any made before or since was being conducted by the Earl of Elgin. Being appointed ambassador to Constantinople in 1799, his lordship set out with the intention of procuring accurate casts and drawings of the remains of sculpture and architecture in Greece, particularly at Athens. Obtaining no encouragement from the English government, he succeeded in interesting Sir W. Hamilton and the King of Naples in his views, and was allowed to employ Lusieri, the king's painter, on his expedition. For about nine months this artist and five others were employed on the work of copying, without any facilities from the

Turkish government, but paying a heavy tax for the right to pursue their investigations. At length all but Lusieri were withdrawn, until the year 1801, when the success of the British in Egypt produced a most favourable and unexpected change in the conduct of the Turks, who were now as anxious to conciliate the English, as they before treated their operations with apathy and contempt. Firmans containing the fullest powers to draw, model, and remove, were granted to Lord Elgin, who availed himself of this authority to its utmost extent, by securing the marbles and casts now in England. The comments upon this proceeding have been most various, and a parliamentary inquiry into the whole course of the affair seems to have established the following facts, in explanation of a course which would seem at first sight to require justification, and which was thought by some to be incapable of any. That Lord Elgin's authority from the Porte was, as far as it was possible to discover, of the fullest kind; that the operations were performed openly, and without hindrance or remonstrance, for months and years; that the Greeks showed no dissatisfaction, but rather preferred the presence of strangers and employers amongst them; that the marbles were daily suffering, partly from the ill-treatment of the Turks, who showed no manner of interest in them, except by occasionally firing at the figures for amusement, and partly by the zeal of cognoscenti, who paid handsomely for any fragment that could be obtained by fair means or foul; that everything was done on Lord Elgin's private responsibility, and it was impossible to know whether the Turks considered him acting as English ambassador, or only in his private character; and lastly, that the French would certainly have taken them if he had not done so. The result of a controversy, which has now been long silent, was the purchase of these marbles by government for 35,000*l.* A few remaining fragments are at Paris; amongst them a solitary metope, obtained before by M. Choiseul Gouffier. In the year 1810, the Duke of Portland proposed that his vase, formerly known as that of the Barberini palace, should stand in the Museum, he himself retaining the property in it; where a few years ago it was shattered by the blow of some ill-disposed person, but has since, we believe, been restored without sign of injury. The highly interesting relief of the *Apotheosis of Homer* was purchased in 1819 for 1000*l.* In 1824, Mr. R. Payne Knight, one of the trustees, bequeathed his valuable collection of bronzes and other curiosities, which was enriched afterwards by the acquisition of the celebrated Siris clasps, purchased of the Chevalier Brönsted for 1000*l.* In 1834, the *Venus of the Capitol* was presented by King William IV. The Hadrian was purchased in 1821, and busts of Æschines and Homer, with many other curiosities, were presented by Colonel Leake. It was not till 1846 that the marbles of Halicarnassus, which had been long known, were obtained for the Museum by the efforts of Sir Stratford Canning.

Such was the progress of the department of Antiquities, when a totally new feature of Greek art was disclosed by the publication of Sir C. Fellows's discoveries at Xanthus in Lycia. These monuments are of various date; our acquaintance with them must be considered as yet but very limited, while from their recent discovery, the history and circumstances connected with them are not voluminous. An excellent abstract of all

that is at present known will be found in Mr. Vaux's work. If from the Greek and Roman we pass to the Egyptian antiquities, we there find such materials for an acquaintance with the manners of that ancient and mysterious people, as probably no other collection possesses to the same extent. Wonderful as are the evidences of the laborious lives of the Egyptians, and their patient pursuit of the elementary arts, their works are, nevertheless, to use the words of Goethe, at best but curiosities, and of slight avail for moral and æsthetic culture. The occasion of the establishment of this department was the acquisition of antiquities which took place at the capitulation of Alexandria in 1801. On that occasion the Egyptian monuments collected by the French were ceded to the English; amongst them the famous Rosetta stone, Dr. Young's observations on which, aided by a comparison of the name Ptolemy with that of Cleopatra on the obelisk at Philæ, and further carried out by the younger Champollion, led to the discovery of the phonetic hieroglyphics. The Memnon head was presented by Salt and Burekhardt in 1817, having been removed with great difficulty, and after the failure of others, by Belzoni. Mr. Salt himself had a large assemblage of Egyptian curiosities which was bought in 1823 for 2000*l.*, excepting a sarcophagus, still in Sir John Soane's gallery, Lincoln's-Inn Fields. Another was obtained from Mr. Joseph Sams, for 2500*l.*; a second from Mr. Salt, for 5081*l.*; Sir Gardner Wilkinson bequeathed objects of great value, and Lord Prudhoe presented the two lions which guard the entrance to the hall, all during the years 1834 and 1835. In 1837, the *Tablet of Abydos*, an important inscribed stone, was bought for 500*l.*, since which time no great additions have been made to this department. Besides a minute description of these monuments, Mr. Vaux's Handbook contains an account of the Egyptian history, chronology, and mythology, compiled with much diligence and research.

The last great division of Antiquities in the British Museum is that of Assyrian remains, rendered world famous by their novelty and splendour, the extent and success of Mr. Layard's enterprising exertions, and the new revelation of history and manners which lies looked up before our eyes, awaiting the acumen of a Rawlinson for interpretation. On this subject, as in Egypt, the fullest information is afforded by the 'Handbook.' Two chapters are then devoted to a description of two rooms of less popular attraction, but great interest, the Bronze and Vase rooms. The first collection suffers from its present imperfect arrangement, consequent on its rapid increase; the latter has been most carefully arranged, and a complete catalogue of all the vases is in course of completion, one volume being already printed. Mr. Vaux has first given a classification of the remains, in connexion with their chronology, and then selected a few examples of each for description.

This subject closes the volume, which, though it may not be profound enough to add much to Mr. Vaux's learned reputation, will yet prove of great service to the public, for not only is the aim expressed in the preface, of "combining some instruction with an hour's passing amusement" accomplished, but we are convinced that curiosity will be excited and attention awakened by the descriptions of many apparently unattractive

objects—objects which resemble the strains of the poet of old, that "had a voice for the initiated, but were for the most part in need of an interpreter."

Contes et Nouvelles. By Leon Gozlan.
Paris: Victor Lecou.

FRENCH authors have no need to express the wish of poor Sterne, in 'Tristram Shandy'—"I would go fifty miles on foot to kiss the hand of that man whose generous heart will give up the reins of his imagination into another's hands—be pleased, he knows not why, and cares not wherefore,"—for French readers allow the fullest latitude to writers, and care not a rush whether their productions be long or short, be according to rule or in violation of rule, be possessed of a plot or without a plot, be on something or on nothing, provided only that they please. And this is why French literature can boast of some of the most remarkable romances ever written; why it has a multitude of tales and *nouvelles* full of fascination; and why, on the stage, it is in exclusive possession of the *vaudeville*—a thing which no other country can hope even to imitate.

Although the French have always been noted for their love of *nouvelles* and *contes*, that is, short graphic tales, miniature pictures of society, quizzical sketches, sentimental narratives, affecting incidents, and such like, there was reason to fear, four or five years ago, that the customary supply of these would entirely cease, and the art of creating them be entirely forgotten, in consequence of the violent *engouement* universally displayed for romances of 'thrilling interest' and enormous length, like 'Monte-Christo' and the 'Mysteries of Paris,' which dragged their slow length along, day after day, for months after months, in the *feuilleton* department of the daily journals. Both authors and public would, it was thought, suppose that quantity was an unquestionable proof of quality, and that books would in future be read, not for merit, but for their avoirdupois weight. But the Revolution of February did literature, writers, and readers the good service of knocking on the head these works of stupendous dimensions; and since then the brief and brilliant *conte* and *nouvelle* have regained the favour which they ought never to have lost.

Amongst the living *nouvellistes* and *conteurs*, there is none, perhaps, at this moment of very striking eminence—none even who has just pretensions to aspire to the place left vacant by the late Charles Nodier. But there are many of considerable merit; and foremost in this secondary order we may place our author Gozlan. We do not, however, doubt,—in virtue of the principle of political economy, that the demand generally causes the supply to be created—that now that the public have manifestly returned to their old worship of *contes*, this branch of light literature will soon resume its former glory.

Some of the little tales and sketches here collected into a volume have been published already, but they support a second reading: the others are very pleasing. In none is there any attempt at fine or powerful writing, or any straining at invention: but the style is simple and unaffected, the personages and incidents such as we meet with every day, yet presented in an original light. Here and there are touches, comic or affecting, not unlike Sterne; here and there remarks which, though

made half laughingly, show that the author is a thinker—(a *rara avis* amongst French *littérateurs*)—whilst more than one of the tales possesses really striking interest. In the half-dozen pages devoted to Elisa Mercœur—a young lady of poetic talent, who died in great misery, almost of starvation—the author not only displays much feeling, but contrives in a few lines to indicate the difficulties which beset the poor aspirant for poetical fame:—

"Mademoiselle Elisa Mercœur often said, very low, very low to her friends, when reduced to frightful distress, 'I wonder whether the Greek poets had bread to eat every day!' And she seemed to think that her published poetry entitled her to a small pension. A pension! But the government cannot really grant pensions to poets, even to good ones. It keeps at the menagerie lions which eat every morning ten francs' worth of hot meat, tigers which absorb fifteen francs' worth of mutton, a giraffe which drinks six francs' worth of milk, and I won't mention the monkeys of Brazil, and the white bears of Greenland, which it takes paternal pride in feeding. How then can it think of poets? Instead of being a poet, be a lion or a monkey, and you will have a lodging gratis. What is an author compared to an antelope?"

We should be glad to see the art of *conte*-writing more seriously cultivated in England. There is, we think, a capital opening for it, as the public is evidently getting weary of the orthodox three-volume novel. To be sure we have magazines and periodicals, which profess to be devoted to it; but they do not give us what we want. Between English tales and sketches, and French *contes* and *nouvelles* there is a wide difference; and we decidedly prefer the latter. They are more airy, more graceful, more delicate, more witty, more original, more sparkling—superior in every respect. They are the reading one prefers when seated in the easy chair by the fire-side in winter, or lounging like the happy dog Tityrus, *sub tegmine fagi*, in summer. They are the works with which we abandon ourselves wholly to the author, and "are pleased, we know not why, and care not wherefore."

The Ethnology of the British Colonies and Dependencies. By R. G. Latham, M.D., F.R.S. Van Voorst.

SOME of the mixed sciences have been of such rapid growth, that a few followers only have been able to keep pace with their progress as to results, and fewer still have gone into the detail and character of the evidence by which such results have been reached. We may, however, safely infer a wide-spread desire for some such general information, from the present numerous race of Handbooks, Elements, Outlines, and Principles. It is well known that amongst their works are some which are not mere compilations, but the productions of men who have achieved distinction as original inquirers. A well-planned Manual has no spare room for old and rejected views or imperfect observations; and it is this respect mainly that the work of the esoteric differs from that of the exoteric teacher.

The work before us contains the subject-matter of six lectures delivered in the early part of this year. It is not of the nature of an elementary treatise, nor is it a handbook of general ethnological science; despite its bulk, we should rather consider as such the author's former work on the 'Natural History of the Varieties of Man;' but then it is the handbook of the advanced student—its wide

range extends beyond the interests and sympathies of the great mass of readers, whilst to some the treatment of the subject may have seemed too concise and technical. Such difficulties will not occur here. To popularize correct views on any subject, is certain to lead to an extension of our knowledge; and on the principle that our attention is most readily drawn to what concerns us, belongs to us, or lies immediately about us, we think that Dr. Latham has shown much judgment in the design of this publication.

There is a well-known line fixing "the proper study for mankind," which seems to carry tenfold truth and meaning when it is made to include all the investigations of recent times, with reference to the physical being and history of man. When Pope disguised under most musical words the philosophical doctrines of his day, some of the most attractive branches of natural history science of the present day had not been indicated; and to some perchance the speculations of the philosophers of the nineteenth century, as to the antiquities of the earth and its races, may seem to belong to the region of dreams, as much as did the metaphysical reveries of the eighteenth.

Ethnology is one of these new mixed-sciences. We are perfectly aware that very many observations and inferences are to be derived from the old writers of Greece and Italy, which are strictly ethnological in their object, just as we have plenty of fanciful theories of creation; but it is only recently that the remote history of man has become the aim and object of special studies. Of all inquiries or curiosities, this seems to us to be the most natural and attractive; we wish that we could hold out the encouragement that its pursuit is easy and sure of its reward, but we know of no investigations where, though abundant knowledge has been brought to bear, the judgment has so often been deficient, and where fancy has so often usurped its functions.

Dr. Latham's groups of dependencies nearly correspond with those of the usual division of the globe, but the proportion of the work allotted to them is not according to the abundance of available material, but inversely. Thus the chapter on our European dependencies is brief compared with that on our Asiatic; but in spite of this, the deficiencies in our ethnographic knowledge are abundantly evident, and it is this which will give the work its practical value in those regions into which it is to be hoped that it will find its way. At home, we would recommend Dr. Latham's volume as a political study rather than a scientific one; the subject of race has been too much ignored by our statesmen and their subordinates. We know how wild and visionary it will sound to those whose only formula is that of the 'British Constitution,' to be told that ethnological considerations are the surest guides for the government of dependencies; but so it is. Nor is its recognition less important for the formation of our United Kingdom. Some thirty years ago M. Augustin Thierry published one of his ingenious historical essays on the 'Antipathy of Race which divides the French Nation.' If the like had been done for the British Islands, and had escaped the stigma of being a mere philosophical crotchet, we might perchance in some matters have legislated more wisely than we have. France is made up of two unconciliableness—the Frank and the Celt—the conqueror and conquered—the

master and the subject. Under all the changes by which such conflicting elements have been held together, the original relation has never been effaced, and it never can; castes may succeed distinctions of blood, orders may succeed castes, personal titles may succeed privileged orders—it is but an abatement of pretensions, and each French revolution has been nothing else than the surging up of Celtic feelings over the feudalism of the Franks. This picture may suggest many resemblances; if we put Norman for Frank, it will nearly do for ourselves: the crown, though rudely handled once or twice, is still the crown of the conqueror. In spite of the amusing fictions of our peerages, the race of Norman nobles has been long extinct; but privileged orders, like organic beings, have powers of assimilation whereby they prolong their duration, and it is in this way that maxims and relations which originated in feelings of race have been handed down to representative successors as a true political inheritance. In England, and at the end of 800 years, Norman elements everywhere present themselves; our legal tenures of property all point back to conquest and confiscation; the chase is still the favourite pastime that it was in the days of the Red King, and the forest-laws, or their progeny, still, as then, fill our prisons with offenders; perhaps even in the meanest phase of the English character—its tuft-hunting and toadyism—we may trace the inherited instincts of a subjected race. It is in Ireland, however, that the antagonism of race has been best exhibited, though but partially admitted. At the time of the potatoe disease it became a popular fact that Ireland was Celtic and non-progressive, and so deserving of our sympathy; but we should have spared ourselves many anxieties and much national treasure if we could have perceived that her religious preferences are essentially feelings of her race. In Canada, and at the Cape, our difficulties have their origin in differences of race and its inseparable accidents; but in this we have wandered from our text-book; with our utilitarian race, however, if a study is raised to the rank of a science, it is as well to be able to make for it the apology that it has its practical applications.

"Dependencies in Europe" is the only chapter which we shall particularly notice. The Ionian Islands are Greek, but in this we hardly get farther than when we say that the old states of America, in respect of language, point to a derivation from the English of the seventeenth century. Of Malta, Dr. Latham says, "I am unable to carry my reader beyond the simple fact of the language being Arabic." Gibraltar "serves as a test for the ethnology of Spain," and its investigation involves many interesting but obscure points respecting Celts and Iberians, their relative importance and priority, and the ethnological position of the Iberians. W. Humboldt showed that the oldest names of places throughout Spain are not Celtic, and are Iberic; on the other hand, Niebuhr considered the geographical distribution of the Celtiberi:—"This was not in the fertile plains, nor along the banks of fertilizing rivers, nor yet in the districts of the golden corn and the precious wool of Hispania, but in the rougher mountain tracts, in the quarters whereto an aboriginal inhabitant would be more likely to retire, than an invading conqueror to covet." Upon this point Dr. Latham says, "I confine myself to an expression of doubt as to the existence of

Celts amongst the Celtiberi *at all*." This solution of the difficulty will not, we think, find much favour, from the strong mass of historical evidence to the contrary; but it is a point which we cannot discuss here.

Herodotus, who evidently acquired much of his remote geographical information from the traders of the eastern end of the Mediterranean, and whose inaccuracies are just such as any one might make now if without a map, is still to be implicitly trusted, when he states that a people of a given name occupied a given relative position. The Phocæans, he tells us, discovered Iberia and Icetessus, also that the Celts and the Cynetai occupied the western parts of Europe beyond the Pillars of Hercules; these Cynetai dwelt along the valley of the Ana (Guadiana); the Ai being a Greek suffix, and as neither the Celtic nor Iberic admits of the letter k, Cynet would be the only form by which a Greek could convey the sound of Gwenet, which was probably the real name of this tribe or people,—a name which we meet with at other places; Gwenet is still the proper Breton name of the town and district of Vannes,—the seat of a powerful naval people in the days of Julius Caesar, who traded with Britain; and we find it as the name of a portion of North Wales. But true Celts also bordered on the ocean, and as the language of the district of Vannes is only one of the dialectic divisions of the Celto-Breton, they may have had a common Celtic origin, or, in other words, the conjoint evidence of history, language, and antiquities, points to the early extension of tribes having common Celtic elements and characteristics along the whole western shores of the Atlantic from North Africa to Scotland. The earliest ethnographic lines ran from north to south; the subsequent direction, the results of conquest or migration, was from east to west; the old Iberic race seems to have occupied the Mediterranean rather than the Atlantic side of the peninsula.

Dr. Latham considers that the language of the Iberi of Spain survives in the Basque. M. W. Edwards considered that the Basque had fewer affinities with the Greek and Latin than the true Celtic languages had; and that, although in its grammar and roots it had relations with these last, the differences were sufficient to place it out of that group. Dr. Latham's results are bolder:—"The Basque has no recognised affinity with any known tongue, and has undeniable points of contrast with all the languages of the countries around." This language has yet to find its interpreter. The summary of Spain is "that Arab blood increases as we go southwards, and the Gothic and Iberic as we approach the Pyrenees. This makes Gibraltar the most Moorish part of Europe." We had always fancied that the Jewish characteristics were the strongest about the rock.

The Channel Islands need not detain us long; local antiquities assure us that at some distant time they must have been as purely Celtic as lower Brittany. At present they are Norman.

The little dependency of Heligoland is the last that we shall notice. Dr. Latham quotes a well-known passage from the 'Germania' of Tacitus, respecting an island in the ocean, and a sacred grove, in which the rites of the goddess Hertha were celebrated; annotators have generally fixed on Rugen as the place in question. It is true that it is full of religious remains, but these are Slavonic rather than German; its position in the open sea or

ocean, its name—the Holy Land—alike point to Heligoland. This place, in respect of its inhabitants, must serve as a slight test for a commentary:—

"The nearest part of the opposite continent is German—Cuxhaven, Bremen, and Hamburg, being all German towns. And what the towns are the country is also—or nearly so. It is German—which Heligoland is not.

"The Heligolandians are no Germans, but Frisians. I have lying before me the Heligoland version of 'God save the Queen.' A Dutchman would understand this easier than a Low German, a Low German easier than an Englishman, and (I think) an Englishman easier than a German of Bavaria. The same applies to another sample of the Heligoland muse, 'The Contented Heligolander's Wife' (*Die Tofreden Hjelgelünnerin*), a pretty little song in Hettema's collection of Frisian poems; with which, however, the native literature ends. There is plenty of Frisian verse in general; but little enough of the particular Frisian of Heligoland.

"A difference like that between the Frisians of Heligoland and the Germans of Hanover, is always suggestive of an ethnological alternative; since it is a general rule, supported both by induction and common sense, that, except under certain modifying circumstances, islands derive their inhabitants from the nearest part of the nearest continent. When, however, the populations differ, one of two views has to be taken. Either some more distant point than the one which geographical proximity suggests has supplied the original occupants, or a change has taken place on the part of one or both of the populations since the period of the original migration.

"Which has been the case here? The latter. The present Germans of the coast between the Elbe and Weser are not the Germans who peopled Heligoland, nor yet the descendants of them. Allied to them they are; inasmuch as Germany is a wide country, and German a comprehensive term; but they are not the same. The two peoples, though like, are different."

The people who were displaced by the present Germans were Frisians, who are supposed by Dr. Latham to have extended at one time along the whole coast line from Holland to Jutland. "No existing nation, as tested by its language, is so near the Angle of England as the Frisian of Friesland." In a note on this passage we have a promise of an ethnological edition of the 'Germania,' in which will be given "the reasons which have induced the author to go farther than any previous writer in respect to the importance of the Frisian element in the Anglo-Saxon invasion;" and he suggests that instead of Saxon being a native German name for any portion of the population, it was only a Celtic or Roman term for the Germans of the sea-coast.

Dr. Latham gives an extract from Procopius respecting the nations or tribes that inhabited Britain; we would suggest a re-consideration of this. Procopius always calls Britain *Britannia*, and he uses the name very frequently, and when there can be no doubt as to what country he means; but in the passage in question he is speaking of *Brittia*, which he describes in another place as an island opposite the mouths of the Rhine, between Britannia and Thule, and 200 stadia from the shore. He further tells us that the people who live on the main land opposite this island are free from tax, because they convey over the souls of the dead. It has long since seemed to us that the *Brittia* of Procopius, and the nameless island of Tacitus, must be one and the same, and therefore Heligoland. The distance from the shore, which both historians state at 200 stadia, is a remarkable coincidence; and of the three tribes mentioned by Procopius

as dwelling there, it may have derived its designation from one—the Brittones, and preserved the language of another—the Frisones.

We stated in the outset that this small volume was not a formal elementary treatise; it is more attractive, and not less instructive than it would have been in such a form; and an attentive perusal will not fail to point out the fields in which any one who is so disposed may do ethnological service. The following passage will place before our readers at home the position of a portion of a great Asiatic stock, and at the same time serve to show to one in Upper India why and where information is still desired:—

"The northern half of the Tamulian families are, like the Welsh, the Cornish, and the Bretons of France, members of the same ethnological group, but not in geographical contact with each other. Or, rather, they are, like the Celtic population of Wales and the Scottish Highlands, cut off from one another by a vast tract of intervening Anglo-Saxons. Yet the time was when all was Celtic, from Cape Wrath to the Land's End; and when the original population extended, in its full integrity, over York and Nottingham, as well as over Merioneth and Argyshire. And so it is with the populations in question. They stand apart from each other, like islands in an ocean; the intervening spaces being filled up by Hindús. At the same time the isolation has been much overvalued, and I imagine that when greater attention shall have been bestowed upon this important subject, connecting links which have hitherto been unnoticed will be detected."

We trust that Dr. Latham's convenient volume on the ethnology of our British colonies may find favour with some of that numerous body of educated men—civilians, officers, and clergymen—who are connected with them; and by way of encouragement we would point to the copious extracts in Dr. Latham's larger work from Mr. Jukes' voyage, in order to show how much may be done by one inquirer, and in a short time.

The Literature of the Rail. Re-published, by permission, from *The Times*. Murray. THE co-operation of numbers operates powerfully in a nation of enterprise for good or for evil. In times of war or of civil discord, the energies of a people are combined to spoil and to destroy; but in the times of peace they are combined to further the advancement of learning and the arts, and to promote the blessings of civilization. Nearly all our literary, scientific, and art institutions are comparatively of recent date. Our national libraries, our galleries of paintings, sculptures, and antiquities, our museums of natural history, and our literature of these subjects, have all sprung out of the peaceful employment of men's minds during the last five-and-thirty years. The achievements of mechanical and physical science are every day being more and more developed for practical and useful purposes, of great power and magnitude, by means of a more vigorous co-operation of thought and energy. The construction of railways throughout the kingdom, at a cost of more than five hundred millions, by private organization, has accomplished wonders, as might have been foreseen, in the commercial and social world; but who could have predicted that it would affect the world of letters? Yet so it is. The speed and facility of railway riding induces thousands to travel that never travelled before, and the ease with which it is accomplished affords to thousands opportunities of reading that never

occurred in days of yore. The attention of the passenger in those times was taken up by the varieties of scene on the road, now changing horses, now pulling up at the village ale-house; the coachman cracked his whip, he boasted of his skill in handling the ribands, and discoursed on the merits of his team; the guard sounded his horn, and lifted the drag, and both indulged in merry quips at the passers by, while the buxom landlady bid her smiling adieu at every stage. On the rail there is no time to look about, and the traveller is less inclined for conversation or merriment. The mind is whirled, like a spinning-top, to rest, and lulled into that contemplative mood that finds pleasure in reading. Every station has its literary stall, which is now farmed to the highest bidder for permission to supply the passenger with newspapers and books.

Thousands of readers have been created under this new system of travelling, and the demand has been met by a supply of pernicious tales. The pamphlet before us is the re-publication of a masterly essay that appeared on the 9th instant in *The Times*, with a view to check the diffusion of trashy novels, and to direct the locomotive mind to works of a more wholesome and instructive kind. It is here accompanied with a Preface, to which we may first refer, for the sake of extracting a history of the rise and progress of this new source of trade:—

"The gradual rise of the Railway book-trade is a singular feature of our marvellous Railway era. In the first instance, when the scope and capabilities of the Rail had yet to be ascertained, the privilege of selling books, newspapers, &c., at the several stations, was freely granted to any who might think proper to claim it. Vendors came and went when and how they chose, their trade was of the humblest, and their profits were as varying as their punctuality. By degrees the business assumed shape, the newspaper man found it his interest to maintain a *locus standi* in the establishment, and the establishment in its turn discerned a substantial means of helping the poor or the deserving amongst its servants. A cripple maimed in the Company's service, or a married servant of a director or secretary, superseded the first batch of stragglers, and assumed a business for which he had no previous qualification. The responsibility, in truth, was not very great at starting. Railway travelling, at the time referred to, occupied but a very small portion of a man's time. The longest line reached only thirty miles, and no traveller required anything more solid than his newspaper for his hour's steaming. But as the iron lengthened, and as cities, remote from each other, were brought closer, the time spent in the railway carriage extended, travellers multiplied, and the newspaper ceased to be sufficient for the journey. At this period reading matter for the rail sensibly increased; the tide of cheap literature set in. French novels, not, unfortunately, of questionable character, were introduced by the newsman, simply because he could buy them at one third less than any other publication selling at the same price. The public purchased the wares they saw before them, and very soon the ingenious caterers for railway readers flattered themselves that there was a general demand amongst all classes for the peculiar style of literature upon which it had been their good fortune to hit. The more eminent booksellers and publishers stood aloof, whilst others, less scrupulous, finding a market open and ready made to their hands, were but too eager to supply it.

"When it became evident that the vendors of books and papers were deriving large sums of money from their business, the directors of the several companies resolved to make a charge for permission to carry it on; and tenders were duly advertised for, regard being had to the amount offered, and by no means to the mode in which it was proposed

to prosecute the work. In some cases 200*l.*, and in others as much as 600*l.* per annum have been deemed a fair rental for the book-stall at a London terminus. At one of the most important stations in the metropolis, a bookseller who at one time professed himself unable to contribute 60*l.* by way of rent to a benefit society established for the servants of the company, offered two years afterwards 600*l.* when the privilege was put up to public auction. The extent to which literary trash has been sold at these railway bookshops, may be conceived, when it is stated that a large profit has still remained for the bookseller after paying the very large rent-charge to the company."

We now turn to the Essay. The value of the following introductory remarks may be estimated, by considering for a moment the vast extent and activity of our railway system. It was lately stated in *The Times*, that the locomotive engine ran, during the past year, over more than forty millions of miles, being an average of more than a hundred thousand miles a day:—

"The revolution effected in the habits of the people by the introduction of railroads is too evident to be insisted upon. It is certain that we are all on the move. Folks travel now, not only because their business urges them abroad, but because the facilities of locomotion are too tempting to suffer them to remain at home. Just as the humble, who never wrote letters under the old postage system, now open the floodgates of their affections once or twice a week, indulging in twopennyworth of correspondence and ten shillings' worth of gratification and delight, so do the poorer citizens of the State, who never ventured upon the dearly-purchased luxury of the mail-coach, greedily avail themselves at this hour of the cheap and manifold enjoyments of the rail. Travelling of late has been increasing in geometrical progression. Nobody shuts himself up in exclusive ignorance at home. People who never quitted their village for the last forty years of their lives, and whose bodies, souls, limbs, ideas, prejudices and passions, have daily revolved in the narrowest of all circles, have this year, by means of steam, in the course of a few hours been brought in presence of the congregated productions of the world, and within reach of civilising influences unknown to monarchs of a former age. To speak of the immediate and remote effects of the new system of conveyance would be to indite one of the most instructive and hopeful volumes of the time. One effect is too remarkable to be overlooked. Men cannot move their bodies and leave their minds behind them. In proportion as we stretch our limbs do we enlarge our thoughts."

Are we turning this rushing and scampering over the land, asks the essayist, to advantage?—

"The question forcibly occurred to us the other day in a first-class carriage, in which two young ladies and a boy, for the space of three mortal hours, were amusing themselves and alarming us by a devotion to a trashy French novel, most cruelly and sacrilegiously misplaced. A volume of 'Eugene Sue' was in the hands of each. The colour of the books was light green, and we remembered to have seen a huge heap of such covers as we hastily passed the book-stall at the station on our way to the carriage. Could it be possible that the conductors of our railways, all powerful and responsible as they are, had either set up themselves, or permitted others to establish on their ground, storehouses of positively injurious aliment for the hungry minds that sought refreshment on their feverish way? Did they sell poison in their literary refreshment rooms, and stuff whose deleterious effects twenty doctors would not be sufficient to eradicate? We resolved to ascertain at the earliest opportunity, and within a week visited, every railway terminus in this metropolis. It was a painful and a humiliating inspection. With few exceptions, unmitigated rubbish encumbered the bookshelves of almost every bookstall we visited."

A movement has, however, been made on the North-Western Railway to put an end to this unwholesome condition of things. The stalls have been taken by a spirited bookseller and news-agent, determined to supply none but works of sterling literature; and the leading publishers have responded to this movement by the reproduction of some of their most valuable copyrights in shilling and half-crown volumes. The little reprint of Lord Mahon's 'Narrative of the Insurrection of 1845,' appears to have been the first step to improvement:—

"It caught our eye, as it had already fortunately arrested the attention at more than one railway station of Mr. Macaulay, the historian. The sight of it suggested to that brilliant writer the idea and title of a 'Traveller's Library,' and at his instigation—for which we here tender him our thanks—Messrs. Longman commenced the cheap and popular series known by this name, and adorned by Mr. Macaulay's own charming productions."

"As we progressed north, a wholesome change, we rejoice to say, became visible in railway book-stalls. We had trudged in vain after the school-master elsewhere, but we caught him by the button at Euston-square; and it is with the object of inducing him to be less partial in his walks that we now venture thus publicly to appeal to him. At the North-Western terminus we diligently searched for that which required but little looking after in other places, but we poked in vain for the trash. If it had ever been there, the broom had been before us and swept it clean away. We asked for something 'highly coloured.' The bookseller politely presented us with Kügler's 'Handbook of Painting.' We shook our head and demanded a volume more intimately concerned with life and the world. We were offered 'Kosmos.' 'Something less universal,' said we, 'befits the London traveller.' We were answered by 'Prescott's Mexico,' 'Modern Travel,' and 'Murray's Handbook of France.' We could not get rubbish, whatever price we might offer to pay for it. There were no 'Eugene Sues' for love or money—no cheap translations of any kind—no bribes to ignorance or unholy temptations to folly. 'You'll soon be in the *Gazette*,' we said commiseratingly to the bookseller. The bookseller smiled. 'You never sell those things,' we added mildly. 'Constantly; we can sell nothing else.' 'What! have you nothing for the million?' 'Certainly; here is 'Logic for the Million,' price 6*s.*; will you buy it?' 'Thank you, but surely books of a more chatty character —.' 'Chatty—oh, yes! 'Coleridge's Table Talk' is a standard dish here, and never wants purchasers.'"

The following further account of the reformation of the Literature of the Rail is extremely curious and interesting:—

"When the present proprietor of the Euston-square book-shop acquired the sole right of selling books and newspapers on the London and North-Western Railway, he found at the various stations on the line a miscellaneous collection of publications of the lowest possible character, and vendors equally miscellaneous and irresponsible. The keepers of the book-stalls, in fact, were without credit, without means, without education, without information. They bought cheaply to sell at a large profit, and the more despicable their commodities the greater their gains. At one fell swoop the injurious heap was removed. At first the result was most discouraging. An evident check had been given to demand; but as the new proprietor was gradually able to obtain the assistance of young men who had been educated as booksellers, and as public attention was drawn to the improvement in the character of the books exposed for sale, the returns perceptibly improved, and have maintained a steady progressive increase greatly in excess of the proportion to be expected from the increase of travelling up to the present time. Every new work of interest as it appeared was furnished to the stalls, from Macaulay's 'England' down to Murray's 'Colonial Library,' and purchasers were

not slow to come for all. Upon many good books, as well of recent as of more remote publication, there has been an actual run. 'Macaulay' sold rapidly, 'Layard' not less so. 'Stokers and Pokers,' a sketch of the London and North-Western Railway, published in Murray's 'Colonial Library,' sold to the extent of upwards of 2000 copies. Borrow's 'Bible' and 'Gypsies in Spain,' are always in demand, and St. John's 'Highland Sports' keep pace with them. Graver books have equally steady sale. Coleridge's works are popular on the rail. 'Friends in Council,' 'Companions of my Solitude,' and similar small books grasping great subjects, and written with high philosophical aim, are continually purchased. Poetry is no drug at the prosaic terminus if the price of the article be moderate. Moore's 'Songs and Ballads,' published at 5*s.* each; Tennyson's works, and especially 'In Memoriam,' have gone off eagerly; the same remark applies to the Lays of Macaulay and to the Scotch Ballads of Aytoun. A pamphlet, a new book, written by a person of eminence, on a subject of immediate interest, goes off like wildfire at the rail. The Bishop of Exeter's pamphlet on 'Baptismal Regeneration,' and Baptist Noel's book on the Church, had an unlimited sale at Euston-square while excitement on these questions lasted. Books on sporting matters, published by Longman, such as 'The Hunting Field,' are purchased very generally by country gentlemen, who appear, according to our intelligent informant, to have had no opportunity of seeing such works before."

The public are certainly much indebted to Messrs. W. H. Smith and Son, the agents and principal speculators in this honourable movement, for, continues the author,—

"The style of books sold depends more upon the salesman than on the locality; but there are exceptions to the rule. At Bangor, all books in the Welsh language must have a strong Dissenting and Radical savour. English books at the same station must be High Church and Conservative. School-boys always insist upon having Ainsworth's novels and anything terrible. Children's books are disdained, and left for their sisters. 'Jack Sheppard' is tabooed at the North-Western, and great is the wrath of the boys accordingly. Stations have their idiosyncracies. Yorkshire is not partial to poetry. It is very difficult to sell a valuable book at any of the stands between Derby, Leeds, and Manchester. Religious books hardly find a purchaser in Liverpool, while at Manchester, at the other end of the line, they are in high demand. 'Sophisms of Free Trade,' by Serjeant Byles, sold at all the stations to the extent of some hundreds. The 'Answer' to that brochure was scarcely looked at, although the line is crowded with free trade passengers, and traverses the most important free trade districts in the kingdom."

"Descending to the cheaper volumes, the most important section of this singularly interesting trade, we arrive at valuable facts. Weale's series of practical scientific works, published at 1*s.* and 2*s.* each, have been, and continue to be, very generally purchased by the mechanics, engine-drivers, and others employed upon the line. Thousands of copies have been circulated through such industrious hands. For cheap and useful books of this kind, working men generally and some country people are the best customers, while the wives of mechanics confine their patronage exclusively to the cheaper religious publications. Longman's 'Traveller's Library,' price 1*s.*, found a market at once. A thousand copies of 'Warren Hastings' were disposed of as quickly as they could be supplied; of 'Lord Clive' 750 copies have been sold; of 'London' 500; and the sale of these books steadily goes on."

"Cheap literature is a paying literature, if judiciously managed. A host of readers are springing up along the lines of rail, and imitators of the North-Western missionary will not long be wanting at every terminus in the kingdom. Railway directors will find it their interest, no less than their duty, to secure the co-operation of intelligent men, and bookstalls will crave for wholesome food,

which our chief purveyors must not be slow to furnish. Let there be a speedy and final sweeping away of trumpery and trash, and in God's name let all who can, make one great effort in a promising direction towards elevating the character of our humbler fellow-countrymen, and improving the minds and hearts of all."

The timely interposition of this spirited Essay will doubtless check the sale of such abominable trash; and appealing to the understandings of the people, will lead them to taste of the pleasures of literature at a fountain whose waters are pure and afford permanent enjoyment. The writer has spoken the right words in the right place, and at the right season, and the solid arguments he advances deserve the zealous consideration of the Railway authorities.

It is announced in the Preface that the Great Northern Railway has judiciously followed in the clear track marked out by the North Western, and that the South Western Company are now advertising for tenders to supply their lines of railway with books and newspapers; and if directors and publishers will unite in their efforts, we have no doubt they will find that while serving their private interests they are promoting the general weal.

SUMMARY.

Eustace: An Elegy. By the Right Hon. Charles Tennyson D'Eyncourt. Saunders and Otley.

This little elegiac poem is the tribute of a father's affection to the memory of a much-loved and noble son. Captain Eustace d'Eyncourt was cut off by yellow fever, at the age of 25, only a few days after he had joined his regiment, the 46th, in Barbadoes. A brother officer, Henry Mordaunt, aged 23, who tended D'Eyncourt in his sickness, was also attacked, and died the same evening, and the two friends were buried next day, side by side, in the same grave. It was a sad instance of two "lovely in their lives, and in their death not divided." The officers of the regiment erected a handsome tomb over their grave, with an inscription honourably recording the worth of the deceased. A clock-bell was also cast at Barbadoes, on which, in memory of D'Eyncourt's death, the following words are inscribed:—

Me posuit
Carolus de Eyncourt,
Filium, flore ætatis abreptum,
Eustachium dilectissimum deflens.
Revocet vox mea dulces amoris horas:—
Moneat quoque—quam fugaces!
Quantula sit vita!

The clock and bell are now placed in one of the towers of the family residence, Bayons Manor, Lincolnshire. We quote the inscription, both because good in itself, and because the poem is stated by the author to be "an expanded translation"—the bell, as in the original, being supposed to speak throughout the Poem. With description of personal character, and narrative of family events, moral reflections and lessons are interspersed. The voice of criticism is gentle in dealing with subjects so solemn and feelings so sacred; and we have only to observe that the poem, while pleasingly written, is evidently the outflow of natural feeling, and the author has not been seeking to invite the praise of others for the way in which he was uttering his own grief. This is more than can be said of most elegiac poetry, in which there is often more artificial effort than befits the subject. No one can read this elegy without entering into the feelings of mingled love and regret by which it was inspired; and, while mourners may derive from it soothing solace, a striking illustration is presented to all of the instability of every earthly good.

Tales of the Mountains; or Sojourns in Eastern Belgium. Pickering.

"A book's a book, although there's nothing in't," is the prevailing maxim of the day, and the legitimate object of writing,—to convey either instruc-

tion or amusement is quite lost sight of. We have books on every conceivable subject, with no conceivable purpose, but the epidemic mania must have been strong indeed that could have produced the 'Tales of the Mountains.' The first of them is entitled 'The Mountain Home.' It is an account of the residence of an English family in the province of Liège. Twenty-four pages are devoted to explaining why they went there; but, until the author explains his explanation, we can give no information on the subject. To sketch the story would give a faint idea of the absurdity of the whole, for, though the outline is sufficiently grotesque, the filling up is more ridiculous still. The speaker—a guest in the house—describes himself as an old bachelor, but finally turns Benedict in favour of a lively widow, sister of his host, whose husband shamefully deserted her, and was conveniently killed in a duel. His principal characteristic is a propensity for 'betting,' but as he generally stakes his 'head,'—a thing which, judging from his conversation, his friends would hardly care to win, and which it would be no great detriment to lose,—this gambling turn is perfectly harmless. The remainder of the *dramatis personæ* consist of a talkative father, an insipid mother, six sons, one daughter, two lovers, a doctor, and a few subordinates. The incidents embrace several suppers with minute bills of fare, and, by way of contrast to these substantial entertainments, a multitude of ghosts. Indeed, the family are always either eating or ghost-seeing. Several stories are related over the whisky-punch: each narrator seems emulous that his own tale should be the dullest, and so close is the race that it would be difficult to decide between them. The book has no redeeming point, except the negative one of being harmless. This exciting narrative is succeeded by a chapter of wholesale murders, apparently the commencement of a story, of which the end is omitted; then follows, to conclude, the tale of 'The Prophetess of Embourg,' which is absolutely unreadable. Greater trash we believe it to be impossible to compress within the limits of two small volumes, and we implore the author not to fulfil his threat of giving to the public further treasures from his "stock of legendary lore."

A Specimen of Calligraphic Art. Respectfully dedicated to all Nations. By John Craik.

It is something new to meet with such a costly book as this intended solely to illustrate the beauties of penmanship. If such a production was likely to have the effect of making all men become better writers, and decide at once upon adopting "a good bold hand," we should look forward to being relieved from a world of trouble which the hieroglyphical writing of our friends often creates. May the enthusiasm of Mr. Craik not go unrewarded, and his beautiful writing have its fair influence on all hands, for we have never seen anything of its kind more perfectly executed. The specimens, which consist of 14 verses of a poem on God, by the Russian poet Derzhavin, are lithographed by Maclure and Macdonald; the originals were written with a steel pen, and with extraordinary ease and facility. Mr. Craik is the writing master at the Dumfries Academy.

The Ionian Islands; what they Lost and have Suffered under the Thirty-five Years' Administration of Lord High Commissioners. By an Ionian. Ridgway.

WITH frequent letters signed "An Ionian," the readers of the political journals have for some years been familiar. Resident in London, he has done all in his power to awaken public attention, sometimes to the neglect, at other times to the mismanagement, of the Ionian Islands by the British Government. The present work is written in reply to a pamphlet entitled "The Ionian Islands under British Protection." Into the political questions discussed it is not for us to enter; suffice it to say, that the Ionian, while friendly to British protection, complains bitterly of the maladministration of some of the British Commissioners, and describes the Islands as groaning under all the evils to which those countries seem doomed which are under the control of the Colonial office. In

1833, an able treatise appeared, "The Colonies and the Ionian Islands," by Colonel C. J. Napier, in which the evil effects of various parts of that policy were pointed out, which the writer of the present work more vehemently denounces. The style is in some places intemperate even for a political controversialist; but this is pardonable in one who feels warmly on a subject in which few take sufficient interest. Some excuse must be made, however, for the writer, who has been assailed with personal attacks, ungenerous and unbecoming. The reply to a remark intended to disparage "the Ionian" with Englishmen, that he was "the brother of a shopkeeper at Corfu," is dignified and eloquent, and the castigation inflicted on the Oxford man who demeaned himself by the allusion is well-merited. While feeling it no disgrace to be related to one engaged in honourable trade, his brother being the chief bookseller in the island, the Ionian tells his assailant that, if his classic enthusiasm ever lead him to Sappho's Leap in Leucadia, he will find he is upon the ancestral land of the "shopkeeper of Corfu." He then skilfully turns the point to the subject of his pamphlet, by showing how the Ionians are excluded from most of those positions which, in England, are counted more honourable than business. As literary reviewers, while we avoid entering on the matter of political controversies, the manner of conducting them is within our province, and, therefore, we notice this. In the Appendix, various documents and papers are given. The perusal of this pamphlet, with that to which it is a reply, will afford the fullest information on the Ionian Islands, which are of growing importance in connexion with British influence in the Mediterranean and the East.

LIST OF NEW BOOKS.

Art Journal Illustrated Catalogue of the Exhibition, 21s.
Beddoe's (T. L.) Poems, cloth, 7s. 6d., complete, 2 v., 12s.
Bull's Hints to Mothers, seventh edition, 12mo, cloth, 5s.
Chalmers' (Dr.) Life, Vol. 3, 8vo, cloth, 10s. 6d.
Chambers's Papers, Vol. 10, 12mo, 1s. 6d.
Emigrant's Manual, cloth, 4s. 6d., sewed, 4s.
Churton's (E.) Railroad Book of England, cloth, 21s.
Cumming's (Dr.) Our Father, fourth edition, 12mo, cl., 3s.
Is Christianity from God? 12mo, cl., 3s.
De Crignelle's (H.) Le Morvan; its Wild Sports, &c., 10s.
Doyle's Overland Journey to Exhibition, 3s., coloured, 5s.
Edelman and Duke's Treasures of Oxford, Part 1, cloth, 5s.
Evans's Ministry of the Body, second edition, cloth, 7s. 6d.
Harcourt's (E. V.) Sketch of Madeira, post 8vo, cl., 8s. 6d.
Hogg's Instructor, Vol. 7, cloth, 4s. 6d.
James's Comments on Morning and Evening Services, 15s.
Johnson's (T. B.) Gamekeeper's Directory, half-bound, 5s.
Kelke's (W. H.) The Churchyard Manual, 12mo, cloth, 3s.
Kirwan's Letters to Right Rev. Bishop of New York, 2s. 6d.
Knight's Shakspeare, Vol. 8, 18mo, cloth, 1s. 6d.
Lady Selina Clifford, edited by Lady Dormer, 2 vols., 21s.
Le Mois de Mai à Londres et l'Exposition, par J. Janin, 7s.
Model Lessons, Parts 1, 2, and 3, 12mo, 2s. 6d. each.
Overmon's (F.) Mechanics for Millwrights, post 8vo, cl., 7s.
Sidney's (S.) Rides on Railways, post 8vo, cloth, 5s. 6d.
Sterne's Physical Geography, 12mo, cloth, 3s. 6d.
Thiers's Consulate and Empire, Vol. 10, 8vo, sewed, 7s.
Traveller's Library, Parts 6 and 7: Laing's Norway, each, 1s.
Two Fairy Tales, by a Lady, 18mo, cloth, 1s. 6d.
Ward and Heywood's University Statutes, Vol. 2, 8vo, 9s.
Yule's (Lieut.) Fortification for Officers & Students, 10s. 6d.

NEW METHOD OF WEIGHING AT THE MINT.

AMONG the changes consequent upon the re-modelling of the Royal Mint, will be a total reformation in the weighing department, by the introduction of 'Cotton's Patent Automaton Balances,' which have been employed at the Bank of England for more than eight years past with great success. To meet the requirements of the Mint, a complete system of these balances is now in course of construction by Messrs. Napier and Son, Engineers, of Lambeth, capable of weighing about 60,000 pieces per day; the mechanical arrangement is somewhat changed to suit for Mint purposes. At the Bank of England it is necessary to divide the coin into two classes only, those that are too light, and those of sufficient weight, the first being rejected and disfigured, and the last returned to circulation; but in the primary classification made at the Mint, those that are too heavy must also be detected, as a loss would accrue should such pieces be allowed to pass. The machines for the Mint are adapted to separate the pieces weighed into three classes—viz., the too heavy, the medium, and the too light. Those who

have seen the machines at work at the Bank of England, or the one belonging to the Bank at the Exhibition, may remember that two hammers are employed to displace the coin from the scale after being weighed, one acting higher than the other—the lower hammer striking first, and sending the coin, if heavy, to the box for heavy; but, if light, passing under, while the high hammer sends it to the receptacle for light pieces. Instead of these hammers, the weight of the piece is indicated by the beam, and is estimated by a brass finger, working in a slot made in the pendant attached to the bottom of the scale. This finger, being raised at each weighing by a cam movement, is allowed to descend immediately after the weighing is completed, and the pendant held fast, until arrested in its downward progress by coming to the bottom of the groove made in the pendant. When at rest in this position, another movement, working in conjunction, brings a vibrating tube or channel against a stop, which the action of the finger has brought into position; the upper end of the tube being ready to receive the coin as it is displaced from the scale, which will be effected by the piece next coming on, and the lower end placed over one of three openings to subservient channels, according as the coin may be too heavy, medium, or too light, and thence into the compartment desired. As the medium pieces should not exceed certain limits, light or heavy, the descending pendant, whichever it may happen to be, is allowed to subtract from itself a piece of fine wire of the weight required, and leave it on a fixed support; but if the surplus or deficiency in the coin does not exceed this small weight, the beam will of course remain horizontal, or nearly so, and the piece weighed will be treated as medium.

THE ARCHEOLOGICAL MEETINGS.

WE proceed to give a *resumé* of the most interesting matters brought before the members and friends of the two societies, 'the Institute' and 'the Association,' at the meetings which have just terminated.

At Bristol the Institute commenced proceedings by a *soirée*, held at the Philosophical Institution, Park-street, at which Mr. Freeman excited a discussion of some warmth, by taking up the subject which we thought had been suffered to die a death of weakness long ago. His paper was upon the 'Illustration and Preservation of Ancient Monuments,' some of which, he thought, might be allowed to crumble in decay without an effort to save them, because their whole value consisted in their being antiquated relics; but castles, abbeys, halls, and cathedrals should be preserved as much as possible in their primitive appearance and condition. Strange and inconsistent as it may seem, he argued that the restoration, we might say preservation, of St. Mary Redcliffe Church, now going on under the direction of the Canynge Society, was rather a matter of regret than congratulation, for its antiquated appearance would be completely destroyed. It is not easy, however, to see where decay is likely to stop, and where repair should begin; and a shapeless ruin of a church, of all things, is but a sad offering to antiquarian lore. In a similar spirit, Mr. Freeman alluded to other reparations going on in Bristol, saying, they were a source of considerable regret to the lovers of antiquity. Upon Lord Elgin he fell with the violence and severity of Byron, for removing the Parthenon relics and others from their hallowed ground; even Dr. Layard, whose labours and discoveries have redounded to the honour of England, did not escape, and if Mr. Freeman had his way, the invaluable relics now rescued to be the books of ancient history, should have been left buried in the sand for ever. We could scarcely say enough in refutation of such shallow, such curiosity-shop archaeology as this. Mr. Hawkins and Mr. Hopkinson defended Dr. Layard and Lord Elgin, remarking that the world would have been ignorant of many of the finest specimens of sculpture if they had not been thus brought to light, and they would have been wholly

destroyed by this time if left on their ancient site.

The regalia and muniments of the Corporation of Bristol are remarkably well preserved, and the latter form a series of royal grants from the time of Henry II. (1164) to the present. Many are illuminated, and are highly valued by the successive possessors. The seals of the corporation are interesting specimens of the art of engraving in the thirteenth century, when Edward I. granted the privilege of using a seal to the corporation.

Professor Willis gave a lecture upon the Cathedral at Wells, which was built under Bishop Jocelyn's direction in the time from 1206 to 1242. He conceived the present building had been enlarged; he pointed out two different kinds of work in the building, which he considered showed that the original architect and his workmen who had commenced the cathedral were dead and gone before the work was finished in the middle ages. Mr. Cockerell, R.A., afterwards gave an account of the sculptured figures on the west front of the cathedral, which consist of 600 large and small statues, arranged in nine tiers, which he calculated cost 20,000*l.* On the following day the old church of St. Mary Redcliffe was inspected, and Mr. Godwin read a paper upon its history, from which we gather that it was founded by the merchants by grants as early as 1207, and there is an indulgence in existence, granting an excuse from ten days' penance to all who contributed to the funds for repair, dated 1246. Sir Simon Burton and William Canynge appear to have been the most active in the erection of the church in the period from 1294 to 1475, when Canynge died. This personage is also interesting from being the ancestor of the celebrated statesman, George Canning. Unlike Mr. Freeman, he (Mr. Godwin) observed that "pride of country, love of country and duty to God prompted strongly to the restoration of this church." Mr. J. Britton, F.S.A., gave an account of the numerous celebrated people with whose career Bristol has been in some way or other connected.

The Chevalier Bunsen afterwards read a very interesting and learned dissertation on the Lake Mœris. After remarking upon the important place in engineering that works connected with canals and draining on the largest scale, as in Holland, held, he stated:—"The Dutch dykes have conquered a whole land (as the Batavian historians and poets justly say) from the waves; the traveller moving on the roads, conducted over those dykes, enjoys the astonishing view of luxuriant meadows and fertile lands, with their flocks, and mills, and villages, and towns, lower than the sea which washes the opposite banks. The construction of the great canal de Languedoc under Louis XIV., formed an epoch in the history of the cultivation of the soil and the internal commerce of France. The Bridgewater canal, and similar works in this country, which are of such paramount importance, even after the introduction of the railway system, that (to use the words of a late illustrious engineer) canals being introduced, the principal use of the rivers is to feed them. The canal of Gottenburg, in Sweden, by a wonderful system of sluices, connects plains and coasts separated by a ridge of mountains; so that here, to ordinary appearance, the problem is solved, to make the water run up hill. The great genius of Riechenbach did the same in Bavaria, in order to profit by a clause in the treaty of Ried, of 1813, which granted to Bavaria the use of a considerable quantity of the rich salt springs of the Salzburg, but left to her the problem of conducting it over the mountains. The ancient world knew and prized the value of such constructions. The immense works connected with the Lake Copais, in Bœotia, belong to very ancient times, and are considerably more important than the more famous (because more known and more trumpeted by their authors) Roman works of the Cloaca Maxima and the emissary of the Alban lake. The construction of the emissary of the Lacus Fucinus, under the Emperor Claudius, in the present Abruzzi, is mentioned as an historical event by Tacitus, although a failure from the beginning. The supposed site of the Lake Mœris, of which

he gave a very complete description, assisted by a map and diagram, was explained, and the Chevalier considered he had established, by his research, a principal point of interest, that the Lake Mœris was a vast reservoir of the Nile, destined for the irrigation of the province of Fajum." In concluding, he said, "I cannot end these remarks on one of the great engineering and architectural productions of the ancient world, without placing before your mind the consoling contrast, that, whereas the great work of Egypt—the only beneficial one of the Old Empire—so exhausted the resources of the empire, that less than 100 years after that construction, the proud throne of the Pharaohs fell a prey to the irruptions of Bedouin hordes, we see in our age, in this country, works which, to a certain degree, equal those ancient works in grandeur, and surpass them in usefulness, arising in wonderful succession, not by the command of a despotic government, but by the free co-operation of a great nation, and more and more developing the resources of the empire, and extending the sphere of general civilization."

The members of 'The Association' assembled at Derby, under their President, Sir Oswald Mosley, on the 20th ult. In his inaugural address, at the Athenæum, upon the general subject of Archaeology, and the duty of the antiquary, Sir Oswald reminded us of our obligations to Mr. Gould, a member of the Association, for having repeatedly endeavoured to induce Government to bring home the 'Cleopatra's Needle.' In connexion with the tombs of ancient Egypt and Nineveh, he was led to speak of the tumuli of Derbyshire and Stafford, which, according to the researches of Mr. Bateman, belonged to the ancient Britons, though the towns and villages around are of Saxon origin. That the wolf, wild boar, and bear, now extinct, were once living in abundance in the woodlands of Derbyshire, he thought proved in several ways; a passage by the Poet Martial, referring to the punishment of Laureolus, would lead us to infer that the bears used in the amphitheatres of the Romans for their combats were supplied from the woods of Britain; and in the Harleian MSS., No. 603, is a drawing of a Saxon amphitheatre, in which a tame bear is exhibited for the amusement of the spectators. The hamlet called Bearwardcote (now Barrowcote), he thought, arose from the residence of a bear-keeper. Whether Derby owes its name to a contraction of the Roman 'Derwentio,' joined with the Saxon 'by,' is a question; the word *deor*, in Saxon, signified a wild beast, and *deor aby* would mean the abode of them. In the 'Doomsday' survey nearly all the land of Derbyshire had passed into the hands of the Normans, of whom Henry de Ferrers in the south, and William Peverel in the north, were the most powerful. These families were united by a marriage, and the Ferrers enjoyed the estates for four generations, under the title of Earl of Derby. They were forfeited, however, by Robert de Ferrers, and given to Edward Earl of Lancaster, becoming the Duchy of Lancaster, when Henry IV. ascended the throne, as son of the Duke of Lancaster (John of Gaunt), since which time the duchy has remained the private property of the reigning monarch.

Mr. Pettigrew delivered an enthusiastic eulogium upon antiquarian pursuits, and directed attention to the departments in the study which might be most efficiently followed—ancient languages, hieroglyphics, and architecture.

The excursions were entered upon on the following day, beginning with a trip along the beautiful valley of the Derwent to Chesterfield, when the party stopped to see the church, the spire of which is a curiosity of architecture, as remarkable as the tower of Pisa, being completely out of the perpendicular, and having the appearance of being twisted by some tremendous force: the date of the church is about the fourteenth century. Great amusement was afforded by a composite statue of a knight in armour kneeling on a slab; the head had belonged to another figure, and the slab was of a different period. So the *sarans* were, fortunately for their honour, not to be caught, though such things have occurred before now; and we

have known a Dr. Dryasdust offer his homage to a boulder stone as a druidical altar. Another object of attention was a monument bearing a large bone, which, by tradition, was considered to be one of the ribs of the dun cow, famous in the history of Guy, Earl of Warwick. Balsover Castle was next visited—a fine old ruin of the time of James I. The most interesting objects here met with appear to have been the collection of Etruscan vases, and other Greek and Egyptian relics, belonging to the Rev. Mr. Hamilton Grey, who with his lady resides in the old keep.

Hardwicke Hall, one of the finest examples of the enriched Elizabethan style in the country, was also an attraction, as much for its architectural merits, as for being the place where Mary Queen of Scots was received by the Earl of Shrewsbury, her keeper. Interesting, also, from its connexion with the same unfortunate lady, is Winfield Manor, where she was imprisoned: this is now in ruins, having been built in the time of Henry IV., and is now the property of the Rev. Samuel Holton. The Rev. Mr. Herrington read a paper upon its history, from which we gather some interesting matter concerning Mary Queen of Scots. According to Camden, it was whilst she was a captive here that Leonard Dacres plotted to deliver her. She was at Winfield in 1584, and was removed from there to Tutbury. It appears that at the former place there were 210 gentlemen, yeomen, officers, and soldiers, employed in guarding her. Her domestic establishment consisted of 5 gentlemen, 14 servants, 3 cooks, 4 boys, 3 gentlemen's men, 6 gentlewomen, 2 wives, 10 wenches and children. The diet of the Queen of Scots, on both "fishe and fleshe" days, is said to have been "about 16 dishes at both, dressed after their owne manner, sometimes more or less as the provision serveth. The two secretaries, master of her household, her physician, and Dr. Preau, have a messe of seven or eight dishes, and do dine always before the Queen, and their own servants have their reversion; and the rest of her folke dine with the reversion of her meat; also her gentlewomen and the two wyves, and other maids and children, being 15, have the messes of meat of nine dishes at both courses for the better sort, and five dishes for the meaner sort." The Queen and her train are said to have consumed about 10 tuns of wine a-year.

A delightful excursion to Chatsworth occupied the chief part of Wednesday, and the beautiful gardens, the fountain throwing its cloud of water 260 feet high, the cascade and the mimic rocks, above all, the conservatory, shown by Mr. Paxton himself, where all kinds of tropical plants thrive as in their native soil, must have formed a very agreeable change from mouldering battlements and musty muniments, welcome even to antiquarians. Mr. Paxton said, that if the Crystal Palace were to be made a winter garden, he should recommend the centre to have a really tropical climate, namely, a high degree of heat with a strong current of air. Proceeding then to Haddon Hall, where the party was received by the Duke of Rutland, accompanied by Lady Palmer and Lady W. Paulet. Mr. Duesbury read a paper on its history, which ranges from 1070 to 1674. Many remnants of the old sporting times were pointed out, and of the jovial feasting that ended the day's sport. Of these an iron hook in the screen was said to have been used to tie the hands above the head of any defaulter who in the opinion of his fellows "shirked his wine;" while in this position cold water was liberally poured down through the sleeves of his doublet. The Duke of Rutland and Sir Oswald Mosley thanked Mr. Duesbury for his communication, and the company returned to Derby for the evening meeting at the Athenæum, to hear papers by Mr. Halliwell, on some of the Ancient Monastic Institutions of Derbyshire, by Mr. Planché on the Armorial Bearings of Ferrers and Peverill, by Mr. Llewellyn Jewitt on the Sports and Pastimes of Derbyshire, and by Mr. Moseley on the Mining Laws.

On Thursday the seat of Sir Oswald Mosley (Rolleston Hall) and Tutbury Castle were included in the programme for the day. The Castle was

another of the prisons of poor Mary, and the President related some curious stories of her from Sir Ralph Sadleir's letters: one was that the Queen was allowed a tun of wine per month (not a ton weight, we presume, but a vessel of that name), besides what she required for bathing in. In the conversation, Sir O. Mosley suggested that perhaps this fact threw some light on the traditional death of the Duke of Clarence, said to have been thrown into a butt of Malmsey, for he might have been drowned in his bath, as such a luxurious style of bathing was the practice of earlier times. Worton Hall, the seat of Mr. Davenport Bromley, attracted much notice from its romantic beauty of situation, and it was said that the celebrated Rousseau had once lived there. The Rev. Mr. Broughton read an interesting account of Norbury Church, which contains some fine specimens of painted glass and brasses. In the evening, Mr. Bateman contributed some observations on the barrows opened near Bakewell; Mr. Heywood, M.P., read a paper on the commission of 1689 to prepare alterations in the Prayer Book; Mr. Reed explained some copies of brasses in the room; and Mr. Pettigrew read a valuable paper on the discovery of the ancient city of Sharecos, in Sardinia.

The morning of Friday was occupied with a visit to Melbourne, the etymology of which place was given as from *mael*, Saxon for a cross, and *burn* for brook. After seeing the beautiful residence of Lord Melbourne, Mr. Briggs read a short notice of the antiquities of Melbourne, describing the castle of King's Newton, where King Charles II., though suffering his misfortunes, was gay enough to amuse himself with making an anagram of his title, 'Carolus Rex,' which reads 'cras ero lux.'

In the evening a dinner at the Athenæum gave the president the opportunity of eulogizing his own Society, and expressing a wish that they might be united in fraternity with the 'Institute,' which desirable co-operation both he and his friend Mr. Heywood had used every effort to obtain, though as yet without success.

The mayor of Derby gave a breakfast to the members and their friends on Saturday, at which entertainment, oddly enough, a Mr. J. Mayer read an amusing paper on electing mock mayors, and Dr. Lee, one on papyri; after which an excursion to Morley to see the collection of painted glass, supposed to have been brought from the Abbey of Dale, at the time of the dissolution of the monasteries, was planned. The members then returned to Derby to separate after having enjoyed a very pleasant week in delightful weather, and with certainly a most industrious supply of papers.

CORRESPONDENCE.

Paris, Thursday.

NOTWITHSTANDING the European reputation which Honoré de Balzac gained by his marvellous romances, he was always profoundly convinced that he had completely mistaken his vocation in becoming a novel writer, and that Nature had intended him either for a great statesman or a great dramatist. Not having had the opportunity of trying his hand at the government of a nation, it is just possible, though perhaps not at all probable, that, as times went, he *might* have made a tolerable minister; but certainly there was little or no reason to suppose that he could ever have become a good dramatist, for he did write plays, and they were one and all wretched failures. Still the jovial fellow never could be persuaded that his undoubted genius was better adapted to the novel than the stage; and he went to his grave lamenting that in him France had lost a second Molière, or—another Richelieu. If, however, he had been present at the Gymnase Theatre on Saturday evening, how triumphantly would he have exclaimed, "I told you so! I knew that I was a dramatist!" for one of the three or four plays left by him in manuscript was performed amidst the hearty applause of an unusually large gathering of the literary fraternity, and of a house thickly crowded. And the success was fairly won; the piece being well constructed, full of dramatic incident, sparkling with wit, and one of the severe slashing satires

which he alone of contemporary authors could perpetrate.

The title is *Mercadet le Faiseur*, and the hero, and the principal personages who surround him, are the audacious speculators and schemers who swindle the public by the concoction of mercantile enterprises, which promise vast interest on investments, but turn out to be all smoke. These fellows are not new either to the novel or the stage,—Bulwer, Dickens, Warren, and a host of other English authors, have introduced them, in one shape or another, more than once in their works; Balzac himself has made them the chief or accessory characters in a dozen or more of his romances. But it is only in France that the *faiseur* or the speculator flourishes in all his glory, and that, Proteus-like, he takes different forms. A company with a capital of 10,000,000*l.* sterling, in shares of 50*l.*, for draining the Mediterranean and planting it with pine-apples, would hardly do in England; in France, by due puffing in the newspapers, and by the promise of fifty per cent. profit, its shares would soon run up to a premium. John Bull, with all his gullibility, would look with suspicion on the confidential agent of the Emperor of Morocco putting up the whole empire for sale, in order to turn it into a vast lake of bitumen for repairing the pavements of London. Jacques Bonhomme, on the contrary, would, with the hope of twenty per cent. before his eyes, invest every farthing he had in the purchase of his shares. In England, if the *faiseur* should happen to succeed, he would always be looked on with suspicion; in France, success would change him from black as pitch to white as snow; in England, if he should be rich, he would be rich and nothing more; in France, money would open to him the highest offices and highest dignities of the state. In Louis Philippe's time, in particular, the principle almost universally acted on was, 'Get rich—honestly if you can—but get rich!' and the doings and successes of *faiseurs* in those days almost surpass belief. Now, Balzac studied these men, their operations, and their dupes, with most patient attention; and he came to the conclusion that they were to be taken as some of the principal types of modern society. He has described them and their personal peculiarities with all that minute analyzation, and that strange effective power, for which he was remarkable. Indeed, in none of the characters of his whole *Comédie Humaine* is there a more masterly searching into the human heart, a more pitiless laying bare of human weakness and vileness, more vigorous or more terrible portraiture. Balzac is there the truly great novelist. And his *Mercadet* is equal to the best of any he has drawn; and the type, that of the *faiseur* 'hard up,' is new.

Apropos, the French are justly proud of Balzac, and take pleasure in insisting on the fact that his pictures of French society are as faithful as they are striking—as minutely true as they are effective. But if, as the best literary judges believe, he alone of modern French romancers will go down to posterity, what an opinion must the world form of the present generation of Frenchmen! for though the author exercises such fascination over his reader as to keep him irresistibly fixed to his page, his characters are almost hideous to contemplate—from their brutal thirst for gold, and their wallowing in sensual enjoyment; from their insolent scepticism in religion, and their audacious contempt for morality. They in fact will warrant this severe judgment of our descendants—if the novels of Balzac be true and faithful pictures of French society in the middle of the nineteenth century, the most of the men were vile, and most of the women impure!

'Liberty' is inscribed at the head of every law and decree, and on the front of every public building; but marvellously little of it exists in reality. Balzac's play has experienced this; it was submitted, first of all, to the theatrical censors, who made sweeping modifications in it before they would authorize the performance; but this was not sufficient to satisfy the government, and it caused, after the first night, the piece to be suspended until other changes were made. The

pretext was that the author had satirised *faiseurs* too severely; and yet *faiseur*, after all, is but another name for swindler. But the truth is, that in the political commotions which have so frequently turned French society topsy-turvy, many a *faiseur* has contrived to thrust himself into high places; and men in high places must be respected.

The Académie des Inscriptions et Belles-Lettres held its annual public meeting on Friday. The proceedings were very long, but were not of striking interest; they consisted in the granting of prizes for the best treatises on particular subjects, in the 'honourable mentioning' of certain meritorious works, in the announcement of prizes for the coming year, and in the reading of some very learned and rather dull papers on different subjects, chiefly archæological. These annual meetings, in fact, are never considered of serious importance; they are more shows for the public than anything else. The Académie was founded by Louis XIV., and the principal duty appointed it was the drawing up of 'Inscriptions' for the king, and watching over *les belles lettres*. It soon, however, let drop the writing of inscriptions, to occupy itself exclusively with literature; and though it cannot perhaps be proved to have had any direct influence thereon either for good or evil, it can boast of having had some of the most learned men of the country amongst its members. It dates from 1663, and is second in antiquity to the Académie Française, founded in 1635. The Académie des Sciences is its junior, having been established in 1666. These three Academies, added to that of the Fine Arts, and to that of Moral and Political Sciences, form the famous 'Institute' of which Napoleon, in the height of his glory, proudly called himself a member, and to which our own Lord Brougham takes pleasure in informing the public, in the title-pages of his works, that he belongs.

The indefatigable Eugene Sue, notwithstanding his daily labours as one of the 750 law-givers of the Republic are, or ought to be, rather heavy, has found time to write another romance, and the publication was yesterday commenced in one of the daily journals. It is called 'Fernand Duplessis; or, the Memoirs of a Husband;' and is, it appears, to be an exposure of what in France it is the fashion to call the miseries and iniquities of married life. Written in great haste, it will (judging from the opening chapters) be slovenly in style and negligent in language; but, *en revanche*, it will (as it seems) be of great dramatic interest, and will throw new light on Parisian society—that strange and striking assemblage of intrigue and passion, of vanity and folly, of elegance and refinement, of chivalry and corruption, of much that is good, and of more that is bad.

It may be remembered that some time ago an extra tax was placed on newspapers which publish romances in the *feuilleton* form. The object of the Legislature was if possible to annihilate the thing altogether, or at least to inflict a 'heavy blow and great discouragement' on certain influential journals to which it was peculiarly advantageous. In defence of the measure, it was urged that most of the romances so published were of an immoral tendency; but as the French are by no means straight-laced, and as, besides, the accusation was not altogether just, the real reason was assumed to be to check the development of Socialist doctrines, which many of the romancers, and especially Sue, had contrived to inculcate with no inconsiderable eloquence and fatal power. Contrary to expectation, however, the infliction of the tax has caused no material diminution in the publication of the *romans-feuilletons*, the public being so accustomed to receive bits of a romance day by day, that the journals have not dared to withhold that intellectual pabulum. But the expense to which this subjects newspaper proprietors is truly enormous; the *Presse*, for example, announces that every *feuilleton* of Sue's new work will cost it not less than 500 francs, or 20*l*. A *feuilleton* seldom contains more than a chapter, not always that; so, if Sue only spins out his romance to anything like the length of his 'Mysteries of Paris,' the proprietors of the *Presse* must count out their money by thousands.

VARIETIES.

Her Majesty's Theatre.—The entertainments at play-house prices have been fully attended during the past week. Madame Barbieri Nini has sung in a second great part of the *prima donnas* of yore, that of *Anna Bolena*, in the opera by Donizetti of that name. Madame Barbieri is too practised a singer not to succeed in singing the music correctly, but in her assumption of the part of the lovely and injured Queen, she shows a great want of those niceties of sensibility which direct and characterize the voice. Her pathos is that of a virago, and emanating from neither a youthful nor beautiful person, produces but little enjoyment.

Royal Italian Opera.—Rossini's opera of *Otello* has never been entirely successful on the Italian stage, where it has inevitably to contend against our familiarity with the *Othello* of our stage, in the meagre garb of the Italian version of the story; neither is the music capable of that lofty demonstration of jealousy that swayed the passions of the Moor of Shakspeare; it was designed for the specialities of Rubini, and he certainly was a very delightful singing *Othello*, without being moved by the fire that we have seen at work in the delineations of Kean and Macready. Tamberlik sings with great energy and earnestness, and gives good evidences of a certain tragic force which we hope to witness in fuller expansion and grasp, for, with such a voice, every step is within his reach. Ronconi is true to the character of *Iago*, and with his serpent-like aspect, sang in the well-known duet most effectively. But how can we speak highly enough of the captivating beauty, the touching tones of pathos, of Grisi's *Desdemona*; in the lovely 'Al piede del salice,' the only air in the opera which, to our mind, equals the ideal of the 'situation,' she sang with the sweetest plaintiveness, giving a tone of *morbidezza*, as the Italians have it, that roused all the sympathies of the audience; unusual signs of enthusiasm evinced this, such as we have rarely seen in our audiences. The 'Barcarole' romanza was charmingly sung behind the scenes by Tamberlik, and altogether we have to regret that only one performance of the *Otello* has been given. To-night the season closes worthily with Meyerbeer's *Huguenots*, a work, as it stands amongst the highest in the lyric scale, is well chosen to end with, where the noblest works have been so admirably sustained.

St. James's Theatre.—Mr. Barnum, the great American speculator in marvels, has taken this theatre for the purpose of showing us the wonderful performances of tragedy and comedy by two very young ladies, Misses Kate and Ellen Bateman, about the age of eight and six years. They played the fifth act of *Richard III.*, in which Ellen took the part of the *King*, and Kate that of *Richmond*. They were made up according to the most approved representations of Kean, the little *Richmond* being "clad in complete steel," and the effect of the magniloquent speeches, hurling mortal defiance from one to the other, in tones of tiny childhood, was at times both odd and ludicrous. We should wish to give these little girls the credit of having carefully learnt their parts according to the instructions enforced, and for having cleverly got up a certain set of stage attitudes, but we have no taste for "infant phenomenons" in any department of the arts, and still less can we approve of the noble language of Shakspeare being put into the mouth of juvenile precociousness. In the *petite* comedy, *Le Mariage Enfantin*, which followed, and was in fact designed by M. Scribe especially for such displays, the clever young ladies were more at home, and their performance was really enjoyable; in this they acted with intelligence and animation, and seemed to identify themselves with the characters.

Worcester Festival.—The 128th meeting of the choirs of Worcester, Gloucester, and Hereford, began on Tuesday, under no very favourable auspices of weather, but the citizens and country gentry have not been deterred from offering their charities for the benefit of the widows and orphans of the clergy

of the three dioceses, and the collections have rather exceeded the usual amount. Mdlle. Cruvelli has been the principal star, and appears to have pleased the provincial assemblies with her singing as much as she astonished them by her foreign English. Madame Castellan was most favourably applauded, and Herr Fornes has been duly wondered at as a lion basso. Mr. Frank Mori's cantata, 'Fridolin,' was quite a success, though some of the other performances of the band and chorus have been complained of as faulty.

The Fine Arts.—The Royal Academy closed their exhibition with a very brilliant *soirée* to all the exhibitors, at which also many eminent patrons of the arts were present. The Art-Union give a private view to-day of the pictures selected by their prizeholders, and the collection of sketches at the Gallery in Pall Mall East will also be open to private view to-day. We shall take the opportunity of describing the pictures in a future number.

Sale of the Poet Gray's MSS. and Books.—As some little doubt existed whether this collection would not be purchased intact by private contract, we give the following account of the proceeds of the sale which took place on Thursday as announced:—Albin (Eleazar), Natural History of English Insects; 4to, Lond. 1720, 5*l*. 5*s*. Blount (Thomas Pope), Censura celeberrimorum Authorum; fol. Lond. 1690, 3*l*. 5*s*. Boccaccio, Il Decamerone; 4to, Lond. 1725, 5*l*. 7*s*. 6*d*. Burnet (Gilbert), History of his Own Time; fol. Dublin, 1724, 2*l*. 18*s*. Catullus, Tibullus, et Propertius, cum Notis Variorum et Gravii; 8vo, Trajecti, 1680, 3*l*. 3*s*. Chaucer (Geoffrey), The Works of our Ancient and Learned English Poet, Geoffrey Chaucer, newly printed; fol. Lond. 1602, 8*l*. 12*s*. Churchill (Charles), Poetical Works, 2 vols. in 1; 4to, Lond. 1763, 17*l*. Clarendon (Edward Hyde, Earl of), The History of the Rebellion and Civil Wars in England, begun in the year 1641, &c.; fol. Oxford, 1707–1759, 49*l*. 10*s*. Dante (Alighieri); fol. Venet. 1578, 6*l*. 16*s*. 6*d*. Digges (Sir Dudley, Knt.), The Compleat Ambassador; fol. Lond. 1655, 3*l*. 16*s*. Douglas (Gavin), Heir beginning and treatise callit, The palace of honour, compilit be M. Gawine Dowglas, bischop of Dunkeld; 4to, Hen. Charteris, 1579, 1*l*. 10*s*. Dugdale (Sir William), The Baronage of England; fol. Lond. 1675, 6*l*. Euripides; fol. Cantab. 1694, 5*l*. 10*s*. Fabian (Robert), Chronycle, black letter; fol. Lond. 1533, 9*l*. 15*s*. A Collection of the Manuscripts of the Poet Gray; large 4to, 500*l*. Gray (Thomas), Six Manuscript Note Books used by Gray, during his Travels on the Continent, and his Journeys in England, Scotland, &c., 1739 to 1769, 24*l*. Gray (Thomas), Six Note Books, all in Gray's Autograph, made while studying the Greek Classics, 8*l*. 10*s*. Linnæus (Carolus), Systema Naturæ per Regna tria Naturæ; 8vo, Holmiæ, 1758–9, 36*l*. Milton (John), Poetical Works; 12mo, Lond. 1730–38, 37*l*. The Valuable Collection of the Manuscript Music made by Gray while in Italy, 12*l*. The Naturalist's Journal, 4to, Lond. 1767, 8*l*. 8*s*. The Works of William Shakspeare; 12mo, Lond. 1740, 12*l*. 10*s*. The Works of Virgil; 8vo, Lond. 1790, 7*l*. 17*s*. 6*d*. Posthumous Bust of the Poet Gray; a Plaster Cast, with detached Pedestal, 5*l*. 2*s*. 6*d*. A View of the Church of Stokepogeys in Buckinghamshire, 10*l*. 15*s*. The total sum realised amounted to 1034*l*. 7*s*.

The People and Customs of Syria.—The proprietors of the Panorama of the Holy Land have engaged a party of native Syrians, who have just arrived from Aleppo, to exhibit the manners of their country; the ceremony of marriage, and other rites, is gone through with all the proper accompaniments of vocal and instrumental music, and appropriate costume. The party consists of fourteen, including some ladies, who wear picturesque and beautiful dresses. This kind of illustration is gaining favour with the public, as it richly deserves; for it is a most agreeable and real method of becoming acquainted with foreign scenes and people.

Dr. Lingard's Library.—This valuable collection has been bequeathed by the late learned historian to St. Cuthbert's College, Ushaw.

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